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**Engineering Chemistry**

Sub. Code : 15CHE12  
Hours/ week : 04  
Total Hours : 50 Exam.

I.A.Marks:25  
Exam.Hours:03  
Marks : 100

**Module-1****Electrochemistry and Battery Technology**

**Electrochemistry:** Introduction, Derivation of Nernst equation for electrode potential.. Reference electrodes: Introduction; construction, working and applications of calomel and Ag/AgCl electrodes. Measurement of standard electrode potential using calomel electrode. Construction and working of glass electrode, determination of pH using glass electrode. Concentration cells: Electrode & Electrolyte, numerical problems on electrolyte concentration cells.

**Battery Technology:** Introduction, classification - primary, secondary and reserve batteries. Characteristics - cell potential, current, capacity, electricity storage density, energy efficiency, cycle life and shelf life. Construction, working and applications of Zinc-Air, Nickel-metal hydride batteries. Lithium batteries: Introduction, Li-MnO<sub>2</sub> and Li-ion batteries. Fuel Cells: Introduction, difference between conventional cell and fuel cell, limitations & advantages. construction & working of methanol-oxygen fuel cell with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> electrolyte.

**10 hours**

**Module-2****Corrosion and Metal Finishing:**

**Corrosion:** Introduction, electrochemical theory of corrosion, galvanic series. Factors affecting the rate of corrosion: ratio of anodic to cathodic areas, nature of metal, nature of corrosion product, nature of medium – pH, conductivity, and temperature. Types of corrosion- Differential metal, differential aeration (Pitting and waterline) and stress (caustic embrittlement in boilers). Corrosion control: inorganic coatings-Anodizing of Al and phosphating, metal coatings-Galvanization and Tinning. Cathodic protection (sacrificial anodic and impressed current methods).

**Metal Finishing:** Introduction, Technological importance. Electroplating: Introduction, principles governing-Polarization, decomposition potential and overvoltage. Factors influencing the nature of electro deposit-current density, concentration of metal ion & electrolyte; pH, temperature & throwing power of plating bath, additives-complexing agents, brighteners, levellers, structure modifiers & wetting agents. Electroplating of chromium and Ni (Watt's bath). Electroless plating: Introduction, distinction between electroplating and electroless plating, electroless plating of copper & manufacture of double sided Printed Circuit Board with copper. **10 hours**

**Module-3****Fuels and Solar Energy:**

**Fuels:** Introduction, classification, calorific value- gross and net calorific values, determination of calorific value of fuel using bomb calorimeter, numerical problems Cracking: Introduction, fluidized catalytic cracking, synthesis of petrol by Fischer-Tropsch process, reformation of petrol, octane and cetane numbers. Gasoline and diesel knocking and their mechanism, antiknocking agents, , power alcohol, biodiesel.

**Solar Energy:** Introduction, utilization and conversion, photovoltaic cells-importance, construction and working. Design: modules, panels & arrays. Advantages & disadvantages of PV cells. production of solar grade silicon (union carbide process), doping of silicon-diffusion technique (n&p types) and purification of silicon (zone refining). **10 hours**

#### **Module-4**

##### **Polymers:**

Introduction, types of polymerization: addition and condensation, mechanism of polymerization free radical mechanism taking vinyl chloride as an example. Molecular weight of polymers: number average and weight average, numerical problems. Glass transition temperature (T<sub>g</sub>): Factors influencing T<sub>g</sub>-Flexibility, inter molecular forces, molecular mass, branching & crosslinking, and stereo regularity. Significance of T<sub>g</sub>. Structure property relationship: crystallinity, tensile strength, elasticity, plastic deformation & chemical resistivity. Synthesis, properties and applications of PMMA (plexi glass), Polyurethane and polycarbonate. Elastomers: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of Silicone rubber. Adhesives: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of epoxy resin. Polymer Composites: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of kevlar. Conducting polymers: Introduction, mechanism of conduction in Polyaniline and applications of conducting polyaniline. **10 hours**

#### **Module-5**

##### **Water Technology and Nanomaterials:**

**Water Technology:** Introduction, sources and impurities of water; boiler feed water, boiler troubles with disadvantages -scale and sludge formation, priming and foaming, boiler corrosion (due to dissolved O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub>). Determination of DO, BOD and COD, numerical problems. Sewage treatment: Primary, secondary (activated sludge method) and tertiary methods. Softening of water by ion exchange process. Desalination of sea water by reverse osmosis & electro dialysis (ion selective)..

**Nano Materials:** Introduction, properties (size dependent). Synthesis-bottom up approach (sol-gel, precipitation, gas condensation, chemical vapour condensation. Nano scale materials- fullerenes, carbon nano tubes, nano wires . **10 hours**

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**MODULE-1****ELECTROCHEMISTRY AND BATTERY TECHNOLOGY**

**Electrochemistry: Introduction, Derivation of Nernst equation for electrode potential. Reference electrodes: Introduction; construction, working and applications of calomel and Ag/AgCl electrodes. Measurement of standard electrode potential using calomel electrode. Construction and working of glass electrode, determination of pH using glass electrode. Concentration cells: Electrode & Electrolyte, numerical problems on electrolyte concentration cells.**

**Contents**

- **Electrochemistry: Introduction, Derivation of Nernst equation for electrode potential.**
- **Reference electrodes: Introduction, construction, working and applications of calomel electrode and Ag–AgCl electrode**
- **Measurement of standard electrode potential using calomel electrode.**
- **Determination of pH of a solution using glass electrode, concentration cells, Electrode and electrolyte**
- **Numerical problems on electrolyte concentration cells.**

**ELECTROCHEMISTRY:****INTRODUCTION:****GALVANIC CELL**

It is a device, which converts chemical energy into electrical energy with redox reaction at the respective electrodes.

**ELECTROLYTIC CELL:** The device, which converts electrical energy to chemical energy, is called electrolytic cell.

ELECTROLYTIC CELL	GALVANIC CELL
1. It requires external electric source	1. It does not require external electric source
2. Redox reaction are nonspontaneous	2. Redox reaction are spontaneous
3. Cathode is negative electrode	3. Cathode is positive electrode
4. Anode is positive electrode	4. Anode is negative electrode
<b>Ex:</b> Electroplating And Electroless Plating	<b>Ex:</b> Daniel cell fuel cell

**ELECTROCHEMICAL CONVENTIONS****1. Representation of Electrode:**

If oxidation reaction takes place at anode, then the electrode is represented as  $M/M^{n+}$

If reduction reaction takes place at the cathode then the electrode is represented as  $M^{n+}/M$

The vertical lines indicate the contact between metal electrodes and metal ions.

**2. Representation of Cell:**

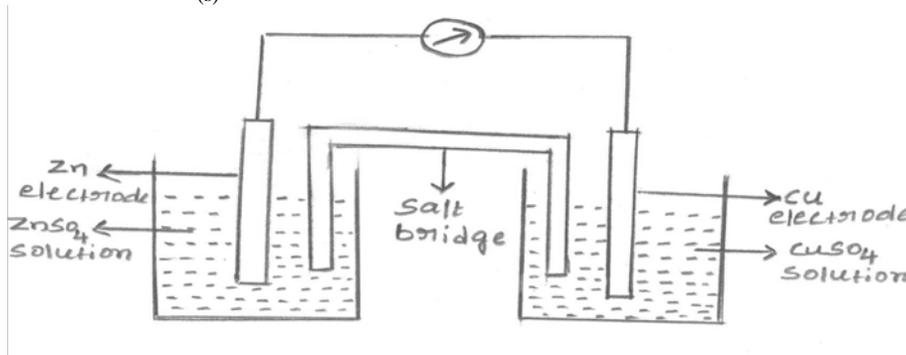
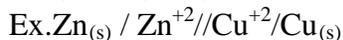
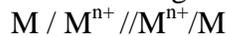
The following points have to be noted to represent an electrochemical cell

a> Anode is always written to LHS.

b> Cathode of the cell is written to RHS of the anode.

c> The 2 vertical lines denote the salt bridge and interface between the 2 electrodes.

Cell notation is given by

**3. Calculation of emf of the cell:**

According to electrochemical application

$$E_{\text{cell}} = E_{\text{cathode}} - E_{\text{anode}}$$

If the EMF value is +ve then the reaction is spontaneous & if it is -ve then the reaction is nonspontaneous.

**SINGLE ELECTRODE POTENTIAL (E)**

Single electrode potential is defined as the potential developed at the interface between the metal and electr

olytic solution, when it is in contact with solution of its own ions.

### **STANDARD ELECTRODE POTENTIAL ( $E^0$ )**

It is the potential measured, when the electrode is in contact with solution of unit concentration at 298K.

If the electrode involves gas, then gas is at 1 atm pressure.

### **EMF OF THE CELL ( $E_{\text{cell}}$ )**

The potential difference between the two electrodes of the galvanic cell which causes the flow of current from one electrode (higher potential) to the other (lower potential) is known as EMF of the cell.

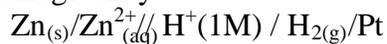
### **MEASUREMENT OF ELECTRODE POTENTIAL**

The potential of any metal electrode is measured using Standard Hydrogen Electrode [SHE] whose potential is zero and it involves the following steps.

#### **1. CONSTRUCTION OF THE CELL ASSEMBLY**

The electrode is coupled with SHE through salt bridge as shown in figure. The emf is measured using electronic voltmeter.

For example: To measure the electrode potential of zinc electrode, it is combined with SHE and the cell notation is given by



#### **2. ASSIGNING THE SIGN ON THE ELECTRODE**

The anode and the cathode of the cell can be identified by connecting the electrode to the appropriate terminals of the voltmeter. The emf is measured only when Zn electrode is connected to the –ve terminal

and hydrogen electrode to +ve terminal of the voltmeter. Then the emf value observed is 0.76V

#### **3. CALCULATION OF ELECTRODE POTENTIAL**

$$\begin{aligned} E^0_{\text{cell}} &= E_{\text{cathode}} - E_{\text{anode}} \\ 0.76\text{V} &= E_{\text{SHE}} - E^0_{\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}} \\ 0.76 &= 0\text{V} - E^0_{\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $E^0_{\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}} = -0.76\text{V}$

Similarly the electrode potential is determined for other metal electrodes.

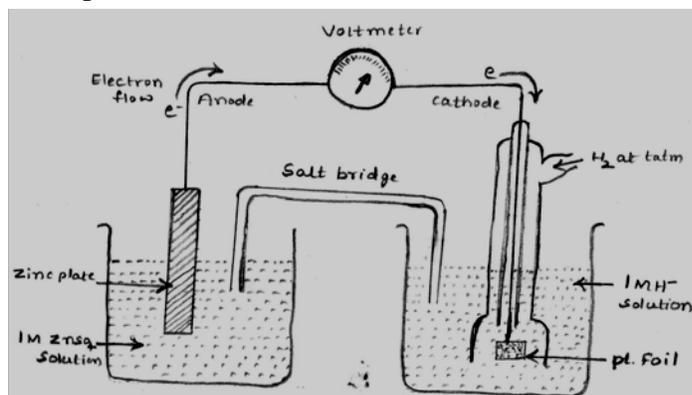
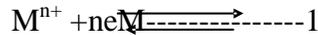


Fig. Determination of electrode potential of Zinc electrode using SHE

### **NERNST EQUATION:**

It relates electrode potential and concentration of the electrolyte species

Consider the following reversible electrode reaction



The decrease in free energy ( $-\Delta G$ ) represents the maximum amount of work that can be obtained i.e. -  
 $\Delta G = W_{\text{max}}$ -----2

The max. work done is given by

$$W_{\text{max.}} = \text{No. of Coulombs} \times \text{Energy available/Coulomb} \text{-----} 3$$

$$W_{\text{max.}} = nF \times E \text{-----} 4$$

Equating equations 2 & 4

$$-\Delta G = nFE \text{-----} 5$$

Under standard conditions  $-\Delta G^0 = nFE^0$ -----6

According to thermodynamic equation

$$-\Delta G = -\Delta G^0 - RT \ln K_c \text{-----} 7$$

Where R - gas constant, T - temperature,  $K_c$  - equilibrium constant

$K_c$  for forward reaction of equation no. 1 is

$$K_c = [M]/[M^{n+}] = 1/[M^{n+}] \text{ since } [M] = 1$$

Substitute the values of  $-\Delta G$ ,  $-\Delta G^0$  &  $K_c$  in equation 7

$$nFE = nFE^0 - RT \ln 1/[M^{n+}] \text{-----} 8$$

Convert  $\ln$  to  $\log_{10}$  by multiplying with 2.303 and divide the equation throughout by nF

$$E = E^0 - 2.303RT/nF \log 1/[M^{n+}] \text{-----} 9$$

Substitute the values of R, F and temperature at 25°C

$$E = E^0 - 0.0591/n \log 1/[M^{n+}] \text{ or}$$

$$E = E^0 + 0.0591/n \log [M^{n+}] \text{-----} 10$$

Nernst equation for E cell for the following reaction at 25°C is



$$E_{\text{cell}} = E^0_{\text{cell}} + 0.0591/n \log [A]^a [B]^b / [C]^c [D]^d$$

**Reference electrodes:** It is the electrode of known potential and are used to measure electrode potential of other electrodes.

Types of reference electrodes

Primary reference electrodes eg; SHE

Secondary reference electrodes eg; Calomel and Silver-silver chloride electrode.

**Calomel Electrode:**

It is a metal-metal salt ion electrode. It consists of a glass tube having a side tube on each side. Mercury (Hg) is placed at the bottom of the tube and it is covered by a paste of  $Hg_2Cl_2$  with Hg. A solution of KCl is introduced above the paste through side tube. A platinum wire sealed into the glass tube is dipped into mercury which gives the external electric contact.

Electrode representation:  $Hg_{(l)} / Hg_2Cl_{2(s)} / Cl^- (\text{Sat.})$

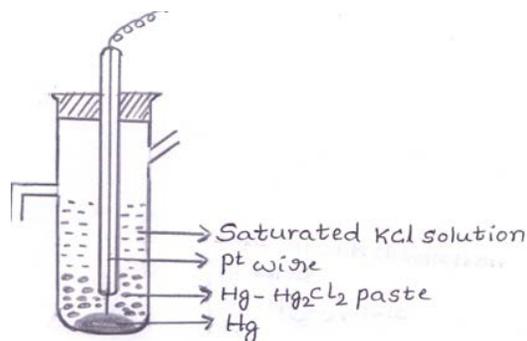


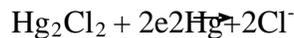
Fig. Saturated Calomel electrode.

Working: It acts as anode or cathode depending on nature of the other electrode.

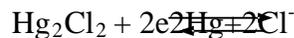
When it acts as anode, the electrode representation is



When it acts as cathode the electrode reaction is



Then the reversible electrode reaction is



According to Nernst equation electrode potential is

$$E = E^0 - 0.0591 \log[\text{Cl}^-] \text{ at } 298\text{K}$$

The electrode potential is decided by the concentration of chloride ions.

### Uses:

It is used as a secondary reference electrode to measure electrode potential

Used as reference electrode in potentiometric determination

Used as reference electrode in pH determination

Advantages: Easy to construct, electrode potential is reproducible, and stable for long period, cell potential does not vary with temperature.

### Silver-

**Silver chloride electrode:** It is prepared by coating a thin layer of AgCl electrolytically onto a silver wire.

This wire when placed in a solution of potassium chloride develops a definite potential depending on the concentration of the electrolyte used.

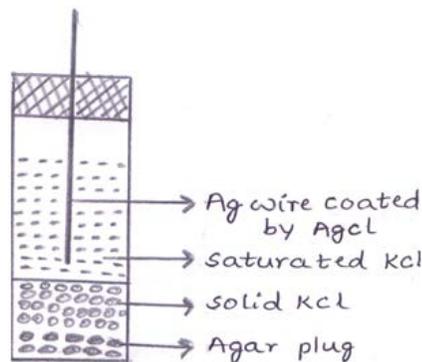


Fig. Silver-Silver chloride electrode.

Electrode representation:  $\text{Ag}_{(s)}/\text{AgCl}_{(s)}/\text{Cl}^-$

Electrode reaction:  $\text{AgCl}_{(s)} + \text{e}^- \rightleftharpoons \text{Ag}_{(s)} + \text{Cl}^-$

Electrode potential is given by  $E = E^0 - 0.0591 \log[\text{Cl}^-] \text{ at } 298\text{K}$

The electrode potential depends on concentration of chloride ions and for the saturated KCl the potential is 0.199V

### Uses:

Used as a secondary reference electrode to measure electrode potential

Reference electrode in ion selective electrode

Used to determine potential distribution uniformity.

**Measurement of standard electrode potential using calomel electrode:**

The given electrode is coupled with calomel electrode (Reference electrode)

The emf of the cell is measured using a device. Knowing the potential offered by the reference electrode, the potential of given electrode is calculated.

The potential is measured using a vacuum tube voltmeter, because it draws a minimum current for working.

Zinc electrode is coupled with Saturated calomel electrode using salt bridge.

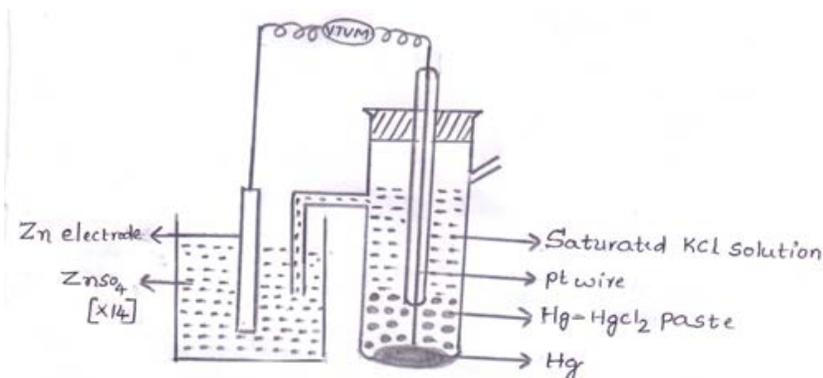
Cell representation:

$Zn/ZnSO_4(X_M)//Saturated\ KCl\ solution/Hg_2Cl_2/Hg, Pt$

The cell is connected to vacuum tube voltmeter and emf is read out

$$E_{Cell} = E_{SCE} - E_{Zn^{2+}/Zn}$$

$$E_{Zn^{2+}/Zn} = E_{SCE} - E_{Cell}$$

**Construction and working of Glasselectrode:**

**Principle:** The potential developed across the membrane is a function of the concentration of the analyte and reference solution. When the concentration of the reference solution is kept constant, the potential developed at the membrane is the linear function of the concentration of the analyte solution.

**Glasselectrode Construction:** It consists of a glass membrane made up of a special type of glass (22% Na<sub>2</sub>O, 6% CaO and 72% SiO<sub>2</sub>) of low melting point and high electrical conductance. The glass bulb is filled with a solution of constant pH (0.1 M HCl) and an Ag-AgCl electrode is inserted, which serves as an internal reference electrode and also as an external electric contact.

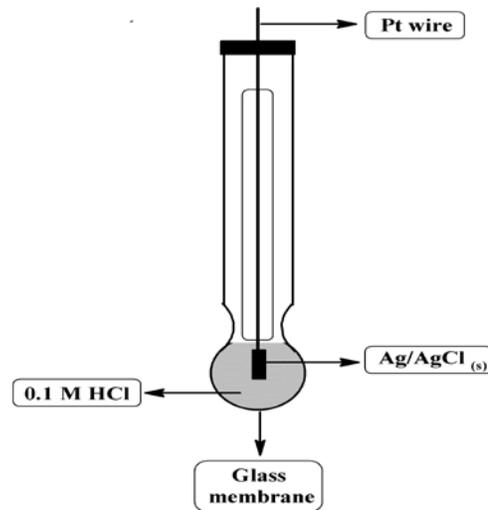


Fig. Glasselectrode

Electrode representation:  $Ag_{(s)}/AgCl_{(s)}/0.1M HCl/glass\ membrane.$   
 The membrane undergoes an ion exchange reaction as follows.



- Advantages: i. It can be used in oxidizing and reducing environments  
 ii. Accurate results are obtained between pH range 1-9  
 ,iii. Electrode does not get poisoned.

**Limitations:**

- i. Ordinary potentiometers cannot be used  
 ii. It can be used up to pH 13 but becomes sensitive to  $Na^+$  ions above pH 9 resulting in alkaline error,  
 iii. It does not function properly in pure alcohol and some organic solvents.

**Determination of pH:**

To determine the pH of a given solution the glass electrode is dipped in a solution whose pH needs to be determined. It is combined with a saturated calomel electrode as shown in fig.

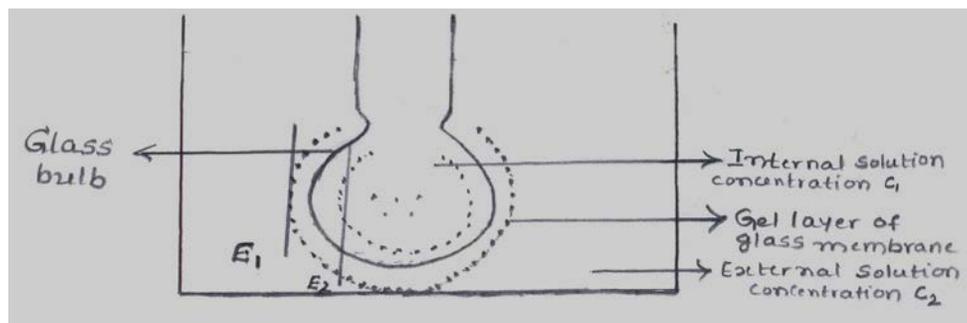
The cell assembly is given by



The EMF of the cell is given by  $E_{cell} = E_G - E_{sat.\ calomel\ electrode}$  -----1

The boundary potential established due to exchange of  $H^+$  with glass membrane is mainly responsible for glass electrode potential  $E_G$  and given by

$$E_G = E_b + E_{Ag/AgCl} + E_{Asy}$$
 -----2



$E_{Ag/AgCl}$  is

internal reference electrode potential,  $E_b$

- boundary potential and  $E_{Asy}$  is

asymmetric

potential observed when Concentration  $C_1 = C_2$

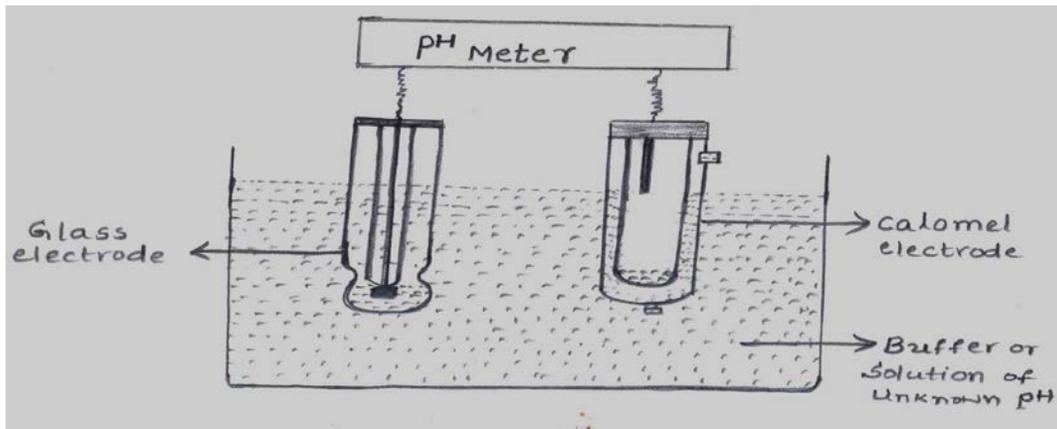


Fig. Determination of pH

The boundary potential is given by Nernst equation at membrane  $E_b = E_1 - E_2$ -----3

Since  $E_1 = \text{Const.} + 0.0591 \log C_1$

$E_2 = \text{Const.} + 0.0591 \log C_2$

Therefore  $E_b = 0.0591 \log C_1 - 0.0591 \log C_2$  since  $n=1$

$E_b = L + 0.0591 \log C_1$ -----4, where constant  $L = -0.0591 \log C_2$ , since  $C_2 = (H^+) = \text{const.}$

$E_b = L + 0.0591 \log (H^+)$  since  $C_1 = (H^+)$

$E_b = L - 0.0591 \text{pH}$ -----5, where  $\text{pH} = -\log (H^+)$

Therefore  $E_G = L - 0.0591 \text{pH} + E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + E_{\text{Asy}}$ -----6

Combine all constant values in the above equation, i.e.  $L' = L + E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + E_{\text{Asy}}$

$E_G = L' - 0.0591 \text{pH}$ -----7

Therefore equation 1 becomes

$$E_{\text{cell}} = L' - 0.0591 \text{pH} - E_{\text{sat. calomel electrode}}$$

$$\text{or pH} = \frac{L' - E_{\text{sat. calomel electrode}} - E_{\text{cell}}}{0.0591}$$
-----8

$$\text{or pH} = K - \frac{E_{\text{cell}}}{0.0591}$$
-----9

where  $K = L' - E_{\text{sat. calomel electrode}}$  which is constant

To evaluate  $K$  the electrode assembly is dipped in a standard buffer solution and pH meter is calibrated to the pH of the buffer solution.

$$\text{PH}(b) = \frac{K - E_{\text{cell}(b)}}{0.0591}$$
-----10

Next the electrode assembly is dipped in a solution of unknown pH and  $\text{pH}(u)$  is given by

$$\text{PH}(u) = \frac{K - E_{\text{cell}(u)}}{0.0591}$$
-----11

Subtract equation 10 from 11,  $\text{PH}(u) = \text{PH}(b) - \frac{E_{\text{cell}(u)} - E_{\text{cell}(b)}}{0.0591}$ -----12

### Concentration Cells:

#### Electrode Concentration Cells:

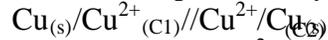
In this type of concentration cell the electrode themselves have different concentration, they may

be electrode operating at different pressure or amalgams of different concentration.

### Electrolytic Concentration Cells:

It is an electrochemical cell that generates electrical energy when two electrodes of same metal are in contact with solution of its own ions of different concentration.

Consider the following concentration cell represented by



Where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are molar concentrations of the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions in the two half cells.

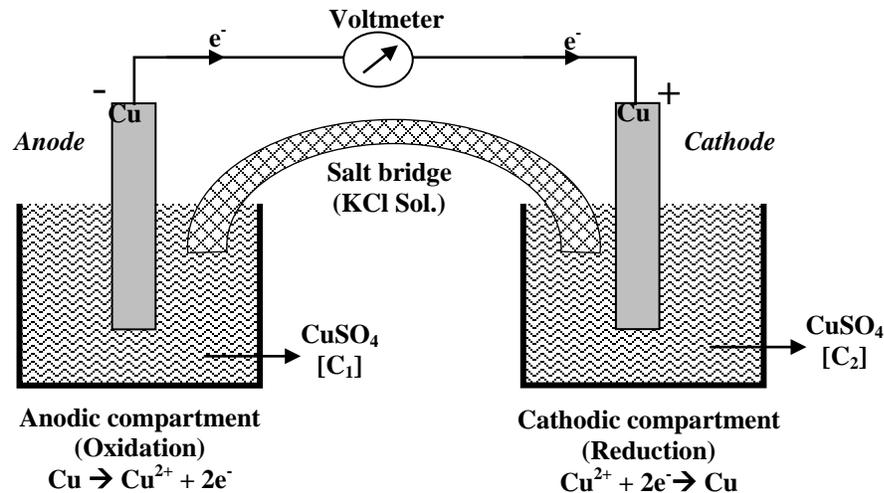
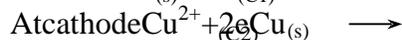
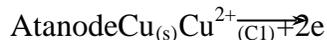


Figure 2: Concentration cell

By electrochemical convention if  $C_1 < C_2$ , the left electrode is an anode and right electrode is cathode. The cell reactions are



The voltage of the cell exists as long as  $C_1 < C_2$

The EMF of the concentration cell is given by  $E_{\text{cell}} = E^0_{\text{Cathode}} - E^0_{\text{Anode}}$

$$\text{Therefore } E_{\text{cell}} = [E^0_{\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}} + 0.0591/2 \log C_2] - [E^0_{\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}} + 0.0591/2 \log C_1]$$

$$\text{or } E_{\text{cell}} = 0.0591/2 \log C_2/C_1 \text{ Where } E^0_{\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}} - E^0_{\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}} = 0$$

In general the EMF of the concentration cell is given by

$$E_{\text{cell}} = \frac{0.0591 \log C_2}{n C_1}$$

From the above equation following conclusions may be drawn

- i. When  $C_1 = C_2$  the concentration cell does not generate electrical energy
- ii. When  $C_2/C_1 > 1$ ,  $\log C_2/C_1$  is positive and  $E_{\text{cell}}$  is positive
- iii. Higher the ratio of  $C_2/C_1$  higher is the cell potential.

**Battery Technology:**

**Introduction, classification—primary, secondary and reserve batteries characteristics: cell potential, current, capacity, electricity storage density, energy efficiency, cycle life and shelf life. Construction, working and applications of Zn–air, Ni–metalhydride batteries, Lithium batteries, Introduction Li–MnO<sub>2</sub> and Li-ion batteries.**

**Fuel cells— Introduction, Differences conventional cell and fuel cell, Limitations and Advantages. Construction and working of CH<sub>3</sub>OH–O<sub>2</sub> fuel cells with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as electrolyte.**

- **Battery Technology: Introduction, classification—primary, secondary and reserve batteries characteristics: cell potential, current, capacity, electricity storage density, energy efficiency, cycle life and shelf life**
- **Construction, working and applications of Zn–air, Ni–metalhydride batteries**
- **Construction, working and applications of Lithium batteries, Li–MnO<sub>2</sub>**
- **Construction, working and applications of Li-ion batteries. Fuel cells— Introduction, Differences conventional cell and fuel cell, Limitations and Advantages.**
- **Construction and working of CH<sub>3</sub>OH–O<sub>2</sub> fuel cells with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as electrolyte**

## BATTERY TECHNOLOGY

### INTRODUCTION:

**Definition:** A battery is a device that consists of one or more cells connected in series or parallel to supply the necessary current.

**Cell:** It is a device that consists of only two electrodes that generate electrical energy.

### Classification:

1) **Primary batteries:** In this type electrical energy can be obtained at the expense of chemical energy only as long as the active materials are present. These batteries cannot be recharged and reused.

Eg: Zn-MnO<sub>2</sub>

### 2) **Secondary**

**batteries:** In this type of batteries once used can be recharged by passing current through it. The redox reaction gets reversed during recharging.

Here electrical energy is stored in the form of chemical energy and utilized for supplying current whenever needed. Therefore secondary batteries are also known as storage batteries.

Eg. Pb-acid, Ni-Cd

3) **Reserve batteries:** The batteries which are stored in an inactive state and made ready for use while activating them before use are known as reserve batteries. In this type one of the components is separated from the rest of the battery. Usually the electrolyte is the component that is isolated. The electrolyte eliminates the self-discharge of battery prior to use. These are used for long term storage.

Ex. Ag-MnO<sub>2</sub>.

### BATTERY CHARACTERISTICS

Batteries are designed to a particular application based on their performance characteristics.

#### Cell

**potential (Voltage):** the voltage available depends on EMF of the cell and EMF in turn depends on free energy change. Consider the equation

$$E_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} - 2.303 \frac{RT}{nF} \log Q$$

Where  $E^{\circ}_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ}_{\text{cathode}} - E^{\circ}_{\text{anode}}$ ,  $Q$  is the reaction quotientie.  $[\text{products}]/[\text{reactant}]$

From the above equation we can conclude that

a) If the difference in std. electrode potential is more, EMF of the cell is also higher

b) as the temperature increases the EMF of the cell decreases.

c) as the value of  $Q$  increases i.e., when current is drawn from the cell the cell reaction proceeds and EMF of the cell decreases.

To derive maximum voltage in addition to above the electrode reaction must be fast to reduce the overpotentials and the resistance of the cell must be low.

**Current:** It is the measure of the rate at which a battery is discharging. For efficient working of the cell there must be a large quantity of electroactive species which help in rapid electron transfer.

**Capacity:** It is the total amount of electric current involved in the electrochemical reaction and expressed in a term of coulombs or ampere hour (Ah). It depends on a size of a battery and given by  $C = WnF/M$  where  $W$  is the mass &  $M$  is the molar mass of active materials

**Electricity storage density:** It is the measure of charge per unit weight stored in the battery. i.e. it is the capacity per unit weight.

**Energy efficiency:** it is given by

$$\% \text{ energy efficiency} = \frac{\text{energy released on discharge}}{\text{energy stored}} \times 100$$

energy required for charging

It depends on rate of charge or discharge, current efficiency of the electrode process and the overpotential during charge and discharge reactions as well as the battery resistance.

**CYCLE LIFE:** It is the number of charge or discharge processes that are possible before failure occurs. Primary batteries are designed for single discharge but secondary batteries are rechargeable.

The cycle life of a storage must be high.

It depends on chemical composition, morphological changes and distribution of active materials in the cell

**Shelf life:** The duration of storage under specified conditions at the end of which a cell or battery still retains the ability to give a specified performance is called shelf life. It must be good for storage cells. Good shelf life for batteries is expected when there is no self-discharge or corrosion of current collectors causing loss of performance

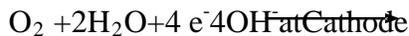
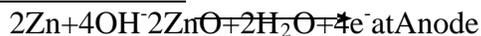
### **Zinc-Air Battery:**

This is a type of metal air battery which uses oxygen directly from atmosphere to produce Electrochemical Energy.

A loose granulated powder of zinc is mixed with electrolyte (30% KOH) acts as anode material. The outer metal acts as cathode of the battery which is filled with small amount of catalyst and carbon to optimize the evolution of oxygen in alkaline solution and for better reduction. The two electrodes are separated by plastic gasket as insulator. As the electrode is compact, high energy densities are obtained.

Battery Notation:  $Zn|KOH|air,C$

The Cell Reactions:



Overall Reaction:



It has energy density of about  $100 \text{ Wh Kg}^{-1}$  three times that of Lead acid battery or twice that of Ni-Cd Battery.

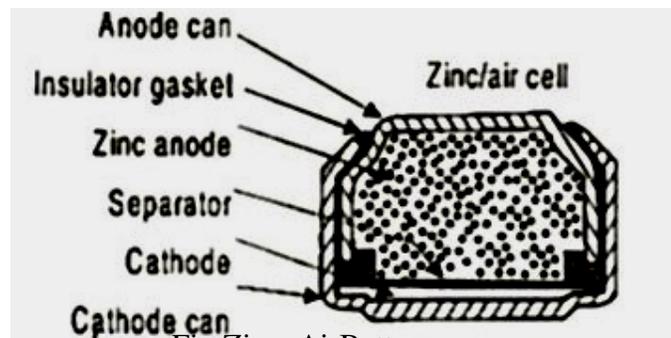


Fig. Zinc-Air Battery

**Advantages:** High energy density, long shelf life, low cost, no ecological problem.

**Uses:** It finds applications in military radioreceivers, power source for hearing aids, medical devices, remote communication etc.

### **Nickel-Metal Hydride (Ni-MH) battery:**

It is similar to Ni-

Cd cell. Instead of Cadmium metal hydride battery uses hydrogen adsorbed on a metal alloy for the anode active material. Anode active materials such as  $VH_2$ ,  $ZrH_2$  and  $TiH_2$  are used. The active material at the cathode

ode is  $\text{NiO}(\text{OH})$ .

The metal alloy is capable of undergoing a reversible reaction as the battery is charged or discharged. The cathode cell can be filled with  $\text{NiO}(\text{OH})$  and anode is highly porous structured with a Ni wire gauge into which hydrogen storage alloy is coated.

The two electrodes are separated with an insulator material at the top and the active materials by an aqueous solution of  $\text{KOH}$  soaked with absorbent material which acts as an electrolyte.

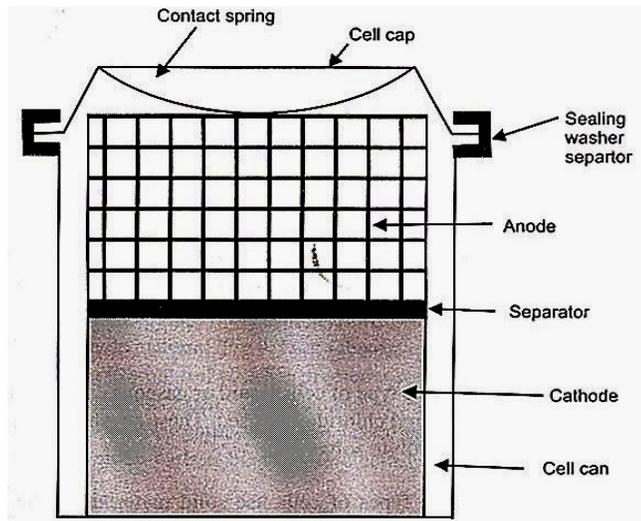


Fig. Nickel–MetalHydridebattery

The battery Representation:

$\text{MH}|\text{KOH}|\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2, \text{NiO}(\text{OH})$

The Cell Reactions:

$\text{MH} + 2\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{M} + 2\text{e}^-$  Anode

$2\text{NiO}(\text{OH}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2 + 2\text{OH}^-$  Cathode

Overall Reaction:

$\text{MH} + 2\text{NiO}(\text{OH}) \rightarrow \text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{M}$

Potential values varies from 1.25V to 1.35V

**Uses:** It is used in Computers, Cellular Phones, camcorders, electric vehicles.

**Advantages:** High capacity, long cycle life, shelf life, less environmental problems.

**Lithium Batteries** are disposable (primary) batteries that have lithium metal or lithium compounds as an anode. They stand apart from other batteries in their high charge density (long life) and high cost per unit. Depending on the design and chemical compounds used, lithium cells can produce voltages from 1.5 V (comparable to a zinc–carbon or alkaline battery) to about 3.7 V. By comparison, lithium-ion batteries are rechargeable batteries in which lithium ions move between the anode and the cathode, using an intercalated lithium compound as the electrode material instead of the metallic lithium used in lithium batteries. Lithium batteries are widely used in products such as portable consumer electronic devices.

**Li–MnO<sub>2</sub> Batteries:**

Li–MnO<sub>2</sub> cell is one of the most widely used batteries. It consists of Li anode and MnO<sub>2</sub> as

cathode. Lithium halide in organic solvents solution is used as electrolyte. The  $\text{MnO}_2$  pellet and anode disc are separated by polypropylene separator pasted with electrolyte. The cell is sealed with canserving as the cathode terminal and cap as the anode terminal.

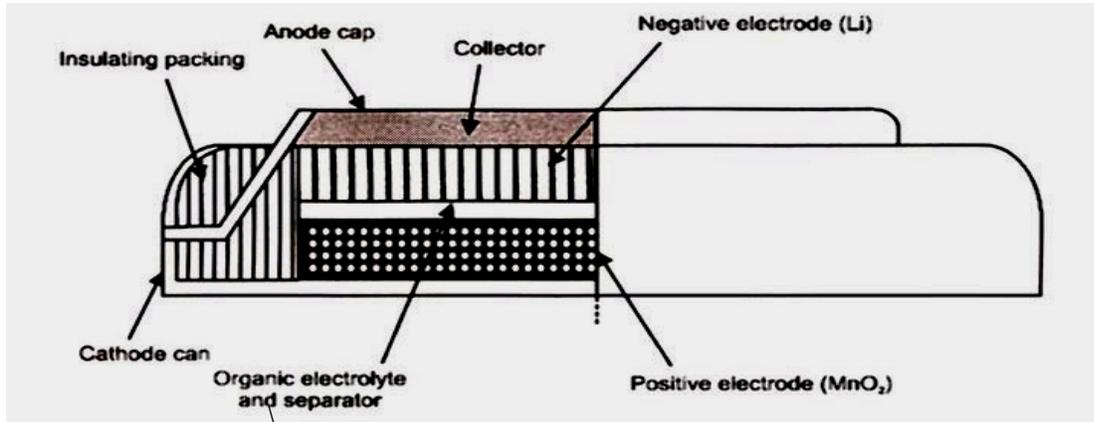
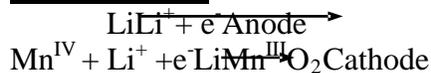


Fig. Li- $\text{MnO}_2$  Cell

### Cell Reactions:



### Overall Reaction:



In the above cell reaction Mn reduces from +4 oxidation state to +3 oxidation state. Lithium ion enters into the  $\text{MnO}_2$  crystal lattice.

The voltage of the cell is up to 4V depending on the cathode used

Uses: It is mainly used in applications watches, calculators, cameras, lighting equipments and long time memory backups.

**Advantages:** High current density due to low atomic mass of lithium

Operates between wide range of temperature ( $-40$  to  $70^\circ\text{C}$ )

Low self discharge rate and shelf life is high.

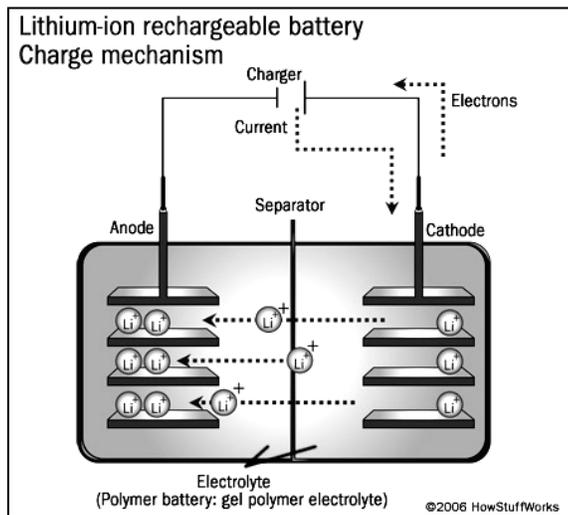
### **Lithium-ion battery (Li-ion Battery)**

1. Li-ion batteries are secondary batteries.
2. The battery consists of an anode of Lithium, dissolved as ions, into a carbon.
3. The cathode material is made up from Lithium liberating compounds, typically the three electro-active oxide materials,
4. Lithium Cobalt-oxide ( $\text{LiCoO}_2$ )
5. Lithium Manganese-oxide ( $\text{LiMn}_2\text{O}_4$ )
6. Lithium Nickel-oxide ( $\text{LiNiO}_2$ )

### **Principle**

1. During the charge and discharge processes, lithium ions are inserted or extracted from interstitial space between atomic layers within the active material of the battery.
2. Simply, the Li-ion is transferred between anode and cathode through lithium Electrolyte. Since neither the anode nor the cathode materials essentially change, the operation is safer than

that of a Lithium metal battery.



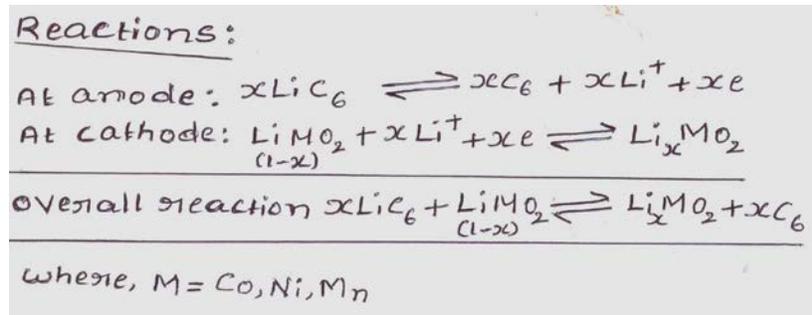
### **Construction:**

1. Li-ion cell has a four-layer structure.
2. A positive electrode made with Lithium Cobalt Oxide has a current collector made of thin aluminum foil – cathode.
3. A negative electrode made with specialty carbon has a current collector of thin copper foil – anode.
4. A separator is a fine porous polymer film.
5. An electrolyte made with lithium salt in an organic solvent.
6. The electrolytes are selected in such a way that there should be an effective transport of Li-ion to the cathode during discharge.
7. The type of conductivity of electrolyte is ionic in nature rather than electronic

### **Working:**

1. The traditional batteries are based on galvanic action but Lithium ion secondary battery depends on an "intercalation" mechanism.
2. This involves the insertion of lithium ions into the crystalline lattice of the host electrode without changing its crystal structure.
3. These electrodes have two key properties. One is the open crystal structure, which allow the insertion or extraction of lithium ions and the second is the ability to accept compensating electrons at the same time. Such electrodes are called intercalation hosts.
4. The chemical reaction that takes place inside the battery is as follows, during charge and discharge operation:
5. The lithium ion is inserted and exerted into the lattice structure of anode and cathode during charging and discharging
6. During discharge current flows through external circuit and light glows
7. During charging, no the electrons flows in the opposite direction.
8. During charging, lithium in positive electrode material is ionized and moves from layer to layer and inserted into the negative electrode.
9. During discharge Li ions are dissociated from the anode and migrate across the electrolyte and are inserted into the crystal structure of the host compound of cathode.

10. At the same time the compensating electrons travel in the external circuit and are accepted by the host to balance the reaction.
11. The process is completely reversible. Thus the lithium ions pass back and forth between the electrodes during charging and discharging.
12. A typical Li-ion battery can store 150 watt-hours of electricity in 1 kilogram of battery as compared to lead acid batteries can store only 25 watt-hours of electricity in one kilogram.
13. All rechargeable batteries suffer from self-discharge when stored or not in use. Normally, there will be a three to five percent of self-discharge in lithium ion batteries for 30 days of storage



### Advantages

1. They have high energy density than other rechargeable batteries
2. They are less weight
3. They produce high voltage out about 4 V as compared with other batteries.
4. They have improved safety, i.e. more resistance to overcharge.
5. No liquid electrolyte means they are immune from leaking.
6. Fast charge and discharge rate

### Disadvantage:

1. They are expensive.
2. They are not available in standard cell types.

### Applications

1. The Li-ion batteries are used in cameras, calculators.
2. They are used in cardiac pacemakers and other implantable device.
3. They are used in telecommunication equipment, instruments, portable radios and TVs, pagers.
4. They are used to operate laptop computers and mobile phones and aerospace application.

## FUELCELLS

### Introduction:

**Definition:** It is an electrochemical device that continuously transform free energy change of redox reaction of a fuel to electrical energy at the electrodes.

A fuel cell is represented as follows

Fuel/Electrode, Electrolyte, Electrode/Oxidant

At anode Fuel Oxidation product + ne

At cathode Oxidant + ne Reduction products

**Advantages:**

1. High efficiency of the energy conversion process.
2. Recharging of fuel cell not required.
3. Absence of harmful waste products.
4. Silent operation.

**Difference between conventional cell and fuel cell**

Conventional cell	Fuel cell
It needs more time for charging	It needs less time for charging
Limited cycle life	Long cycle life
High energy density	Low energy density
Heat produce after long usage	Heat do not produce even after long usage
Ex: Ni-Cd battery. Li-MnO <sub>2</sub> battery	Ex: Methanol oxygen fuel cell

**LIMITATIONS:**

1. Storage of fuel and oxidant.
2. Electrolytes and electrodes are costly.
3. Gives DC output and should be converted into AC.

**ADVANTAGES:**

1. High power efficiency approximately 75%
2. Eco-friendly
3. Space required for fuel cell is less.
4. Produce DC for a long time.

**Construction and working of Methanol-oxygen fuel cell :**

It consists of two porous carbon electrodes. Anode is coated with platinum catalyst and cathode with silver catalyst. The electrolyte is an aqueous solution of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The Methane gas is continuously supplied at the anode and oxygen is supplied at the cathode. As the Methane gas diffuses through anode it is adsorbed on the electrode surface and reacts with Hydroxyl ions to form water. At the cathode Oxygen diffusing through the electrode is adsorbed and reduced and get reduced to hydroxyl ions.

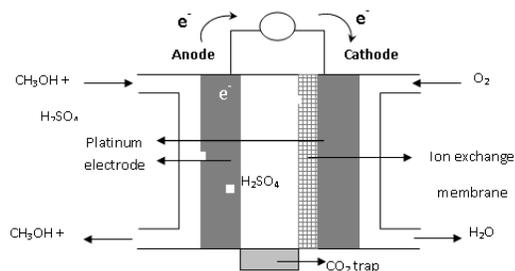
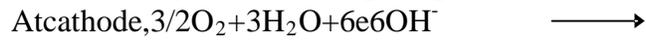


Fig. Methanol oxygen fuel cell

The electrode reactions are



**MODULE- 2**  
**CORROSION AND METAL FINISHING**

**Corrosion** : Introduction, electrochemical theory of corrosion, galvanic series. Factors affecting the rate of corrosion: ratio of anodic to cathodic areas, nature of metal, nature of corrosion product, nature of medium – pH, conductivity, and temperature. Types of corrosion- Differential metal , differential aeration(Pitting and waterline) and stress (caustic embrittlement in boilers).Corrosion control: inorganic coatings-Anodizing of Al and phosphating, metal coatings-Galvanization and Tinning. Cathodic protection (sacrificial anodic and impressed current methods). 5 Hours

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- Corrosion control: Design and selection of materials
- inorganic coatings-Anodizing of Al and phosphating,
- metal coatings-Galvanization and Tinning.
- Cathodic protection (sacrificial anodic and impressed current methods).

### CORROSION AND ITS CONTROL

**Definition** The destruction or deterioration of metal by surrounding environment through chemical or electrochemical attack is known as corrosion.

Ex. Formation of reddish brown scale on iron due to formation of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$

Green scale on copper vessel due to  $\text{CuCO}_3$  &  $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$

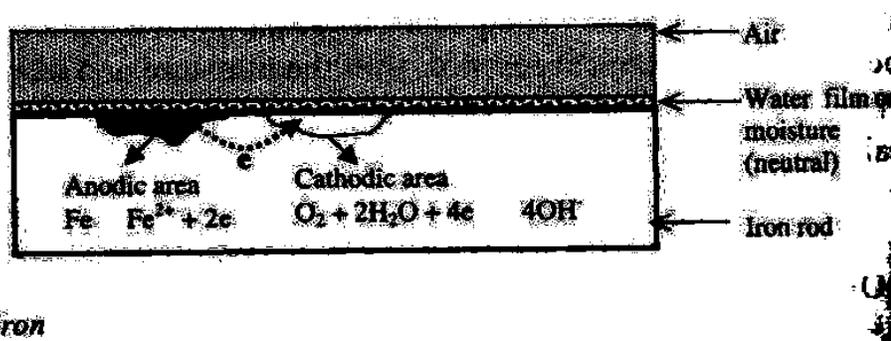
**Dry corrosion** is direct chemical attack in the absence of moisture by dry gases like  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  etc.

**Wet corrosion** is common in nature & occurs by electrochemical attack on the metal with the moisture and oxygen present in the atmosphere.

#### **Electrochemical theory of corrosion.**

When an iron rod is exposed to the environment the following electrochemical changes take place,

- i) Formation of anodic and cathodic areas, at anode oxidation takes place producing electrons and metal ion ( $\text{M}^{n+}$ ). At cathode electrons are taken up by reduction reaction
- ii) Corrosion takes place at the anode.
- iii) Reduction of water and oxygen in the atmosphere to  $\text{OH}^-$  occurs at cathodic area.



#### **Rusting of iron**

Consider the metal like iron exposed to the corrosive environment the reactions that occur are as follows, **Anodic reaction:** Oxidation takes place resulting corrosion of metal

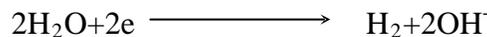


**Cathodic reaction:** At cathode reduction reaction takes place depending upon the nature of electrolyte. There are different possible reduction reactions

- i. If the solution is aerated and neutral oxygen and water are reduced to  $\text{OH}^-$  ions



- ii. If the solution is deaerated and neutral cathodic reaction involves liberation of  $\text{H}_2$  gas and  $\text{OH}^-$  ions

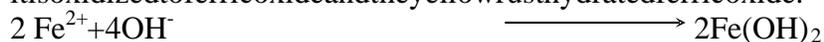


- iii. If the solution is deaerated and acidic cathodic reaction involves liberation of  $\text{H}_2$  gas



Corrosion of iron produces  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  at anode and  $\text{OH}^-$

at cathode. These ions diffuse towards cathode and form  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2$  near cathode. In oxidizing environment it is oxidized to ferric oxide and the yellow rusty hydrated ferric oxide.



**Galvanic Series:**

In galvanic series the active metals are arranged in the order of their tendency to undergo corrosion in sea water under standard condition.

It is useful as a guide for selecting metals to be joined. Alloys are also given position in the galvanic series.

Magnesium tops the list in galvanic series and readily undergo corrosion. Pt is at the bottom of the series which is a noble metal.

**Factors influencing the rate of corrosion****Nature of metal**

The metals with lower electrode potential (higher up in series) are more reactive than with metal of higher potential. The more reactive metals are more susceptible for corrosion.

Thus the tendency of a metal to undergo corrosion decreases with increase in electrode potential.

For example K, Na, Mg, Zn etc. with lower electrode potential values are more susceptible to corrosion. The noble metals Ag, Au, Pt etc.

with higher electrode potential values are less susceptible to corrosion.

**Hydrogen overvoltage**

The metal with low hydrogen overvoltage on its surface is more susceptible for corrosion when cathodic reaction is hydrogen evolution. When the hydrogen overvoltage is low hydrogen gas is liberated easily and thus the cathodic reaction is faster. This will also make the anodic reaction faster and hence the corrosion rate is faster. When the hydrogen overvoltage is high cathodic reaction is slower and corrosion also becomes slow.

**Nature of corrosion product**

The corrosion product is usually the oxide layer formed on metal surface determines the corrosion rate. If the layer formed is stoichiometric, highly insoluble, and non-porous with low electronic conductivity then the layer formed prevents further corrosion. The thin layer formed acts as a barrier between fresh metal surface and the corrosion environment.

On the other hand if the corrosion product formed is non-stoichiometric, soluble, porous and non-uniform then the layer formed cannot control corrosion.

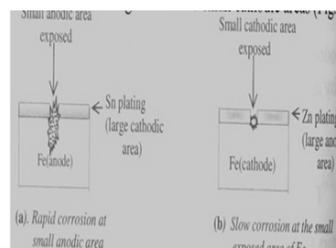
Metals like Al, Cr, Ti etc. form thin oxide layer in corrosive environment on their surface and become passive to corrosion.

**Anode and cathode areas**

The rate of corrosion is greatly influenced by the relative sizes of anode and cathodic areas. If the metal has small anodic area compared to large cathodic area then corrosion rate is high.

Since all the electrons liberated at small anodic area are rapidly consumed by the large cathodic area. If the cathode is smaller the consumption of electrons will be slower and corrosion will become slower.

For example when tin is coated on iron in such a way that some pinholes are left results in small anodic area and large cathodic area. Since tin is cathodic to iron corrosion occurs at the small anodic area exposed. On the other hand when zinc is coated on iron leaving behind small pinholes results in large anodic and small cathodic areas. Since zinc is anodic to iron corrosion of iron will not occur.



**Temperature:** With the increase in temperature the reaction as well as diffusion rate increases thereby corrosion rate is generally enhanced. In the case of corrosion resistant passive metal the rise in temperature reduces passivity and leads to an increase in corrosion.

**p<sup>H</sup>:** Generally acidic media are more corrosive than alkaline and neutral media. However some metals like Al, Zn etc. undergo fast corrosion in highly alkaline medium.

**Conductivity :**

If the medium to which metal part is exposed is conducting then it induces corrosion. If the conductance of the soil or medium is high the rate of corrosion is severe and fast.

Ex: Metal corrodes high in sea water than in river water.

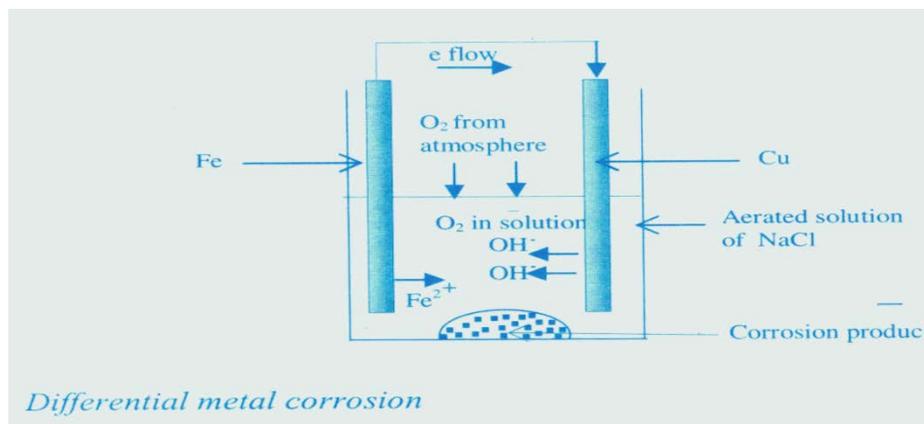
**Types of corrosion:**

**Differential metal corrosion (Galvanic corrosion)**

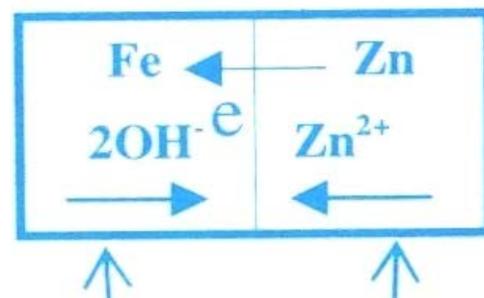
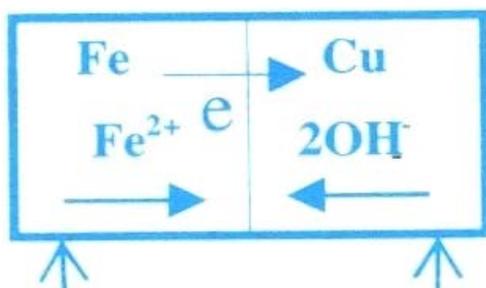
When two dissimilar metals are electrically connected and exposed to a corrosive environment the metal with lower electrode potential (higher up in electrochemical series) undergoes corrosion. For example when zinc and copper are electrically connected in presence of electrolyte the zinc metal with lower electrode potential acts as anodic area; gets corroded as shown in figure, whereas copper which is higher electrode potential becomes cathode.

The rate of this type of corrosion depends on difference in potential. Higher the difference in potential faster the rate of corrosion.

Ex.: 1) Steel pipe connected to copper

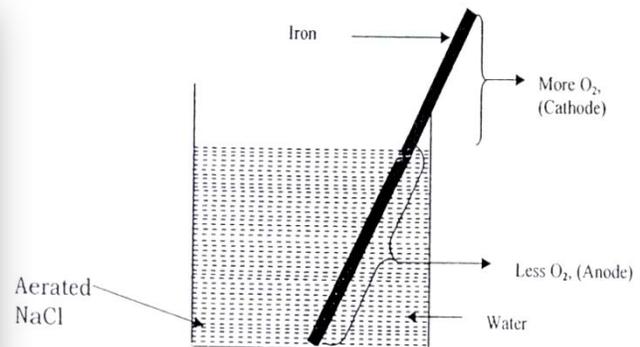
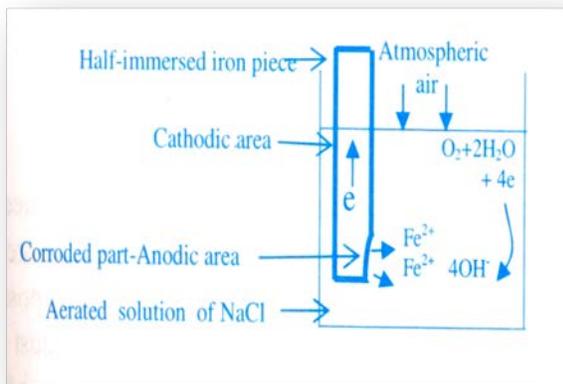


2) Tin coating on copper vessel 3) Zinc coating on mild steel.



### Differential aeration corrosion

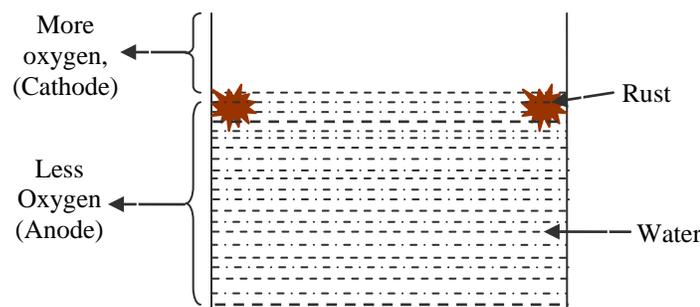
It occurs when a metal surface is exposed to different air/oxygen concentration. The metal part exposed to less oxygen concentration acts as an anodic area and corrodes whereas the higher oxygenated area is protected from corrosion (Cathode). For example when an iron strip is partially immersed in an aerated solution of sodium chloride as shown in figure. The metal part inside electrolyte gets corroded due to anodic reaction and the more oxygenated area of the metal (cathode) is protected. Ex.: Nail inside the wall corrodes, Window frame inside wall corrodes



### Water-line corrosion

It is observed in water storage

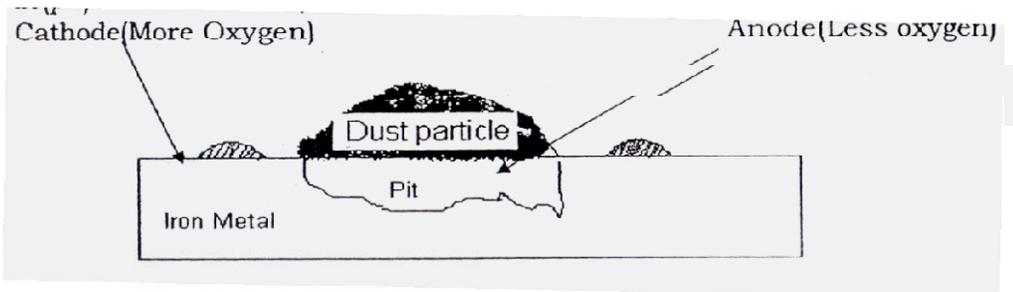
tanks, ship water lifting pipes etc. For example in water storage tank the metal tank part inside water level is exposed only to dissolved oxygen and gets corroded (anode) while the part above water line is exposed to higher oxygen concentration and is protected (cathode).



### Pitting corrosion :

It occurs when small particles of dust, water droplets on metal surface or breakdown of protective film. A typical pitting corrosion is illustrated as shown in figure. The metal portion covered by dust acts as an anode to less oxygenated and undergoes corrosion beneath the dust forming a pit. The metal part free from dust exposed to higher oxygen concentration becomes cathode and protected from corrosion. The corrosion rate

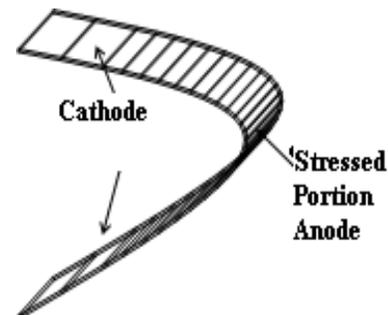
is higher in this case due to small anode area and large cathode area. All the electrons liberated at anode (pit) are absorbed by large cathode area for reduction reaction.



**Stress corrosion** It is observed in metals under stress due to the mechanical operations such as welding, bending, pressing, riveting etc. In this case corrosive agents are specific and selective such as KOH or NaOH for mild steel, traces of ammonia for brass, solution of metal chlorides for stainless steel.

Stress corrosion is explained on the basis of electrochemical theory. In a corrosive environment the stressed portion acts as anode and undergoes corrosion and stress free part becomes cathode.

The metal which is bent as shown in figure has a stress at the bent region. At the stressed part the metal atoms are always at higher energy levels as compared to the one free from stress. The stressed part of the metal therefore becomes more reactive and undergoes corrosion.



Example of stress corrosion:

### Caustic embrittlement

It is observed in mild steel boilers. The boiler water contains a small portion of sodium carbonate added during softening purpose. In boilers this breaks up to give sodium hydroxide and carbon dioxide and makes water alkaline.



Due to crack developed at stressed portion the alkaline boiler water enters into minute hair cracks by capillary action. The water

gets evaporated leaving behind NaOH at cracks. As the concentration of NaOH increases it attacks the mild steel and dissolves the iron as sodium ferrate which decomposes to magnetite.

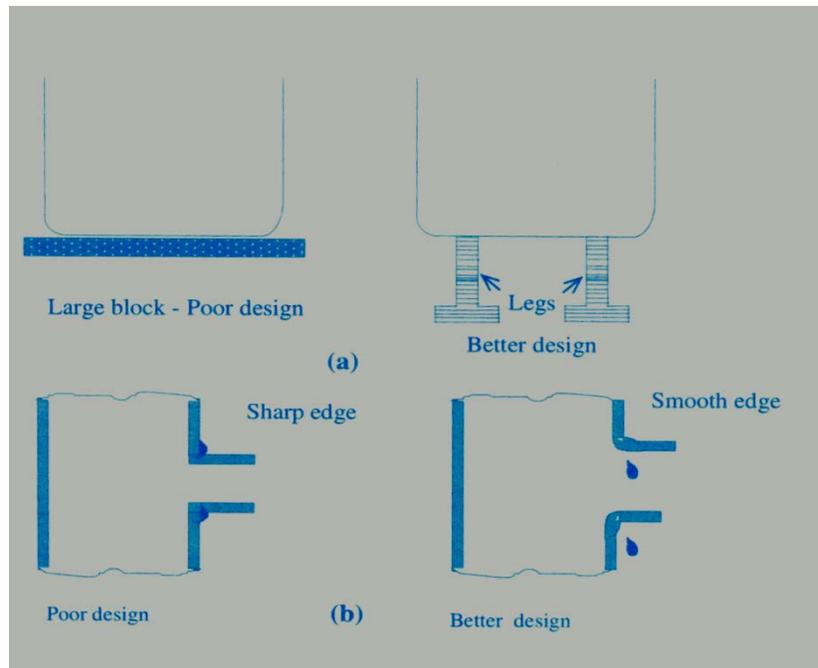


The regenerated NaOH further enhances the corrosion. It is prevented by adding sodium sulphate, tannin, lignin etc. which block the cracks and prevent the infiltration of alkali.

### Corrosion control

#### Design and Selection of materials

- Avoid the contact of dissimilar metals in the presence of a corroding media
- When two dissimilar metals are to be in contact, the anodic material should have as large an area as possible compared to the cathode.
- If two dissimilar metals are in contact, they should be as close as possible to each other in the electrochemical series.
- Whenever the direct joining of dissimilar metals is unavoidable, an insulating material may be placed between them to avoid direct contact.
- Sharp corners and recesses should be avoided
- The equipment should be supported on legs to allow free circulation of air as shown in figure



### Inorganic coating

#### Anodizing of Al:

The process of formation of a film of metal oxide on the surface of a metal by electrochemical oxidation is known as anodizing.

The aluminium article to be anodized is degreased followed by electropolishing to remove impurities present on the metal surface. It is connected to positive terminal i.e. made as anode and steel or copper is made as cathode.

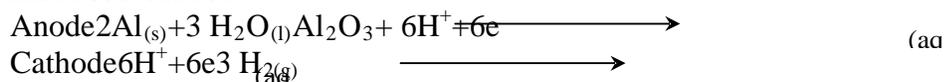
Bath composition:

Electrolyte: 5-10% Chromic acid/10% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/Oxalic acid

Temperature: 35° C

Current density: 10-20 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>

Electrode reaction:



Finally the object is treated with nickel or cobalt acetate followed by boiling water treatment to improve corrosion resistance.

Uses: Used for soap boxes, Tiffin carriers, window frames etc.

**Phosphating :**

It is a process of converting surface metal atoms into their phosphate by chemical or electrochemical processes.

Phosphating offers improved corrosion resistance and also imparts the surface a good paint adhesion quality. Phosphating bath contains free phosphate ions, a metal phosphate (Fe, Mn, Zn) & an accelerator.

The pH is about 1.8 to 3.2.

and temp is  $35^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The reaction involves the dissolution of metal or metal ions, metal ions reacting with the phosphate ions to form metal phosphate & deposition of metal phosphate on the surface of the metal. It is used in refrigerators, washing machines car bodies to provide better paint adhesion in addition to improve corrosion resistance.

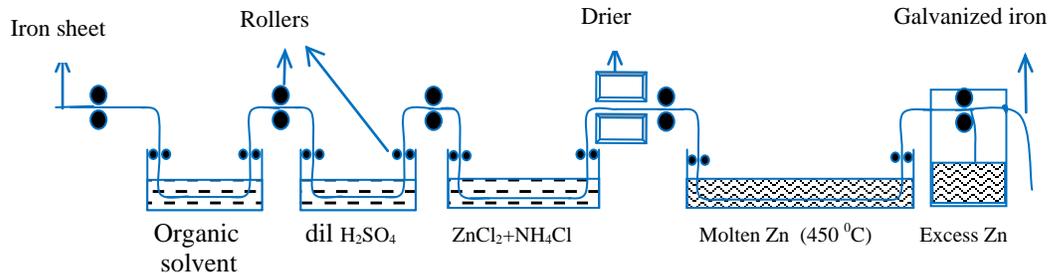
**Metal coating**

Deposition of a protective metal over the surface of a base metal is called metal coating. It is divided into two types: anodic and cathodic coating

**Anodic coating (Galvanization)**

Galvanization is a process of coating a base metal surface with zinc metal by hot dipping process. It involves the following steps:

1. The metal surface is washed with organic solvent to remove grease and oil.
2. Rust and other deposits are removed by washing with dilute  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ .
3. Finally the article is washed with water and dried.
4. The article is then dipped in a bath of molten zinc maintained at  $425\text{--}430^{\circ}\text{C}$  and covered with  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  flux to prevent the oxidation of molten zinc.
5. The excess zinc on surface is removed by passing through a pair of hot rollers, which wipes out excess of zinc coating and produces a thin coating.



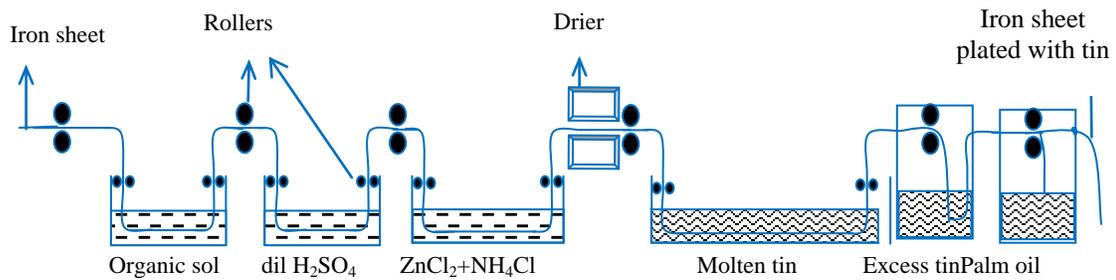
**Uses** It is used to protect iron from corrosion in the form of roofing sheets, fencing wire, buckets, bolts, nuts, nails, screws, pipes etc.

They are not used for preparing and storing food stuffs, since zinc dissolves in dilute acids producing toxic zinc compounds.

**Tinning :**

It is produced by coating a base metal with a more noble metal which is cathodic. Tinning is the most commonly used cathodic coating on steel surfaces by hot dipping process and involves the following steps

1. The metal surface is washed with organic solvent to remove grease and oil
2. Rust and other deposits are removed by washing with dilute  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$
3. Finally the article is washed with water and dried
4. The clean and dry sheet is passed through molten zinc chloride flux which helps the molten metal to adhere on the metal surface
5. Then it is passed through a tank containing molten tin
6. Finally passed through series of rollers immersed in palm oil. The rollers wipe out excess of tin deposits and produce a continuous, thin coating of tin. The oil prevents the oxidation of the tin coated surface.



It protects against corrosion only if it covers the steel surface completely. Since tin is cathodic to iron even if a small crack is formed, intense corrosion takes place due to small anode and large cathode areas.

**Uses:** It is used for storing food stuffs such as jam, instant food, milk products etc.

### CATHODIC PROTECTION:

Cathodic protection is a method of protecting a metal or alloy from corrosion by converting the base metal completely into a cathode and no part of it is allowed to act as an anode.

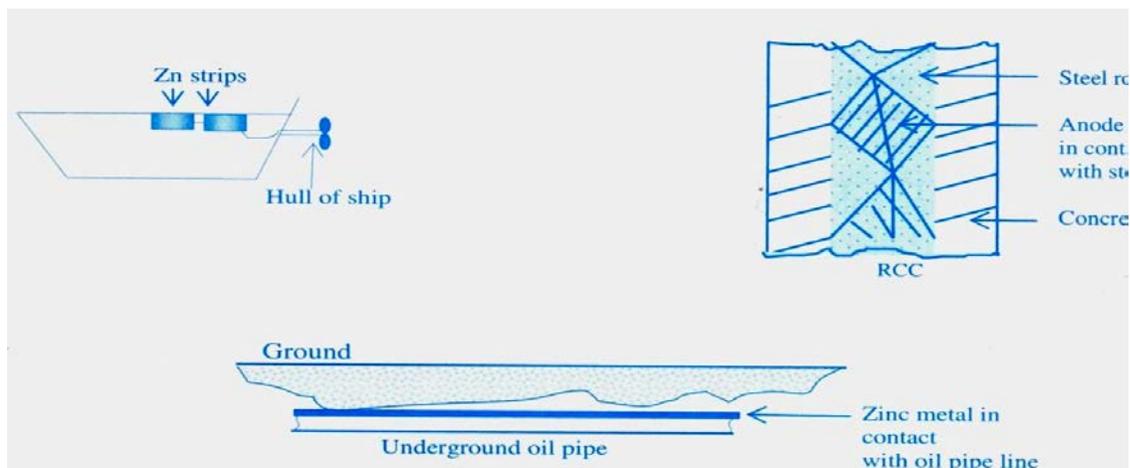
The principle of cathodic protection is to reverse the flow of electrons during corrosion. This can be achieved by providing electrons from an external source so that the specimen always remains cathodic. The electrons can be provided by two methods.

#### Sacrificial anode method:

In this method, the more reactive metals (sacrificial anodes) like Zn, Mg, which provide electrons, are connected to the metal structure to be protected. The base metal will become cathodic & the more reactive metal becomes an anode, preferentially corrosion occurs at an anode.

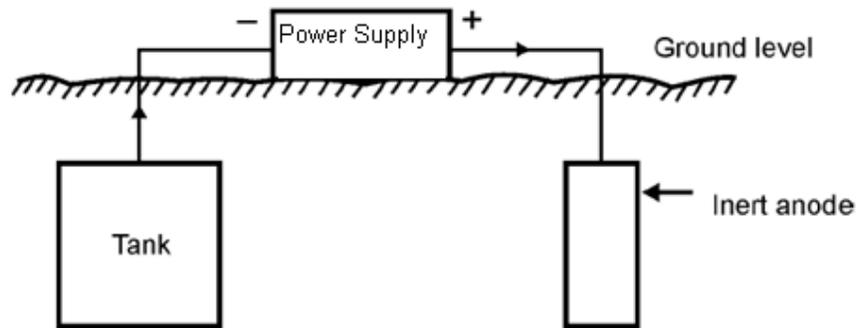
The sacrificial anode which gets corroded, has to be replaced to protect the base metal continuously.

Example: A Mg block connected to a buried oil storage tank.



### IMPRESSED CURRENT METHOD:

In this method the electrons for cathodic protection are supplied by a source of direct current. The specimen to be protected should be made –  
ve otherwise it corrodes. This is used in buried oil pipelines, water storage tanks.



### Metal Finishing

**Introduction, Technological importance. Electroplating: introduction, principles governing-Polarization, decomposition potential and overvoltage. Factors influencing the nature of electro deposit-current density, concentration of metal ion & electrolyte;pH, temperature & throwing power of plating bath, additives-complexing agents, brighteners,levellers, structure modifiers & wetting agents. Electroplating of chromium and Nickel (Watt's bath). Electro less plating: Introduction, distinction between electroplating and electroless plating, electro less plating of copper & manufacture of double sided Printed Circuit Board with copper. 5 HOURS**

- Introduction, Technological importance.
- Electroplating: Introduction, principles governing
- Polarization, decomposition potential and overvoltage.
- Factors influencing the nature of electro deposit-current density, concentration of metal ion & electrolyte;
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- Electro less plating: Introduction, distinction between electroplating and electro less plating,
- electro less plating of copper & manufacture of double sided Printed Circuit Board with copper.

**Metal Finishing:**

**Definition:** It is defined as a process carried out in order to modify the surface properties of a metal by deposition of a layer of another metal, polymer or by formation of oxide layer.

**Technological importance of metal finishing:**

It is the addition of certain properties to the material to increase the utility of the material.

These include

1. to increase corrosion resistance
2. to improve wear resistance
3. to impart electrical and thermal conducting surface
4. imparting thermal resistance
5. imparting hardness
6. to offer the surface thermal or optical reflectivity
7. manufacture of electrical and electronic components such as PCBs, capacitors, contacts
8. electroforming process
9. electropolishing, electrochemical etching

The important techniques of metal finishing are electroplating and electroless plating .

**Electroplating:** It is a process of electrolytic deposition of metal, alloy or composite on the base metal by means of electrolysis.

The three factors governing the electrolysis are polarisation, decomposition potential and overvoltage.

**Polarisation:**

It is defined as the departure of the electrode potential (increase or decrease) due to inadequate supply of species from the bulk of solution to the electrode surface.

The electrode potential is given by the Nernst equation

$$E = E^{\circ} + 0.0591/n \log [M^{n+}]$$

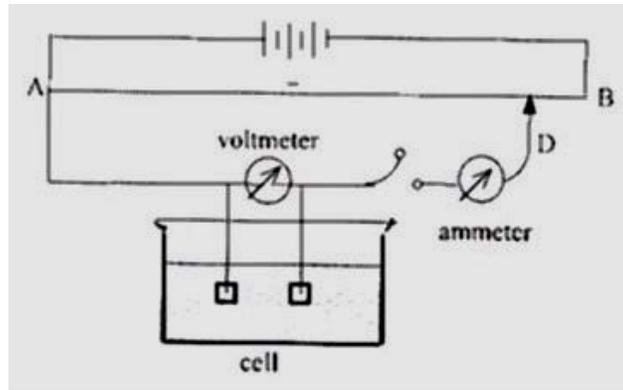
Where E - electrode potential,  $E^{\circ}$  standard electrode potential and  $[M^{n+}]$  is the metal ion concentration. In presence of electric current metal ion concentration decreases due to deposition of metal. When the diffusion rate of metal ion is slow the variation in electrode potential is observed. At that stage the electrode is said to be polarized.

Factors depending on polarisation are

- i. Nature of electrode (size & shape)
  - ii. Concentration of electrolyte and its conductance
  - iii. Temperature
  - iv. Products formed at electrode
  - v. Rate of stirring of the electrolyte.
- To decrease the polarisation effect the electrode surface must be large and low concentration of electrolyte with high conductance.

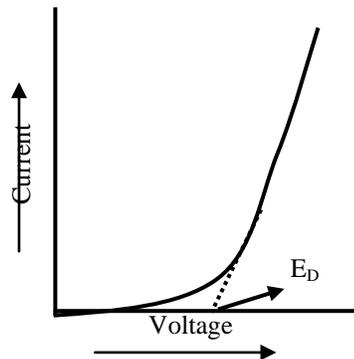
**Decomposition potential:**

The minimum external voltage applied in order to cause continuous electrolysis of an electrolyte is called decomposition potential. It is measured using an electrolytic cell



### Determination of decomposition potential :

The cell consists of two platinum electrodes immersed in the electrolyte. The voltage is varied by moving the contact C along the wire AB and the current passing through the cell is measured with an ammeter. When dilute solution of acid or base is taken in the cell, at low voltage i.e. less than 1.7V no reaction is found to occur because the inert platinum electrodes are converted into active hydrogen and oxygen gas electrodes. These secondary cells formed produce back emf opposing the applied emf. When the voltage is increased above 1.7V sudden evolution of  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  gas takes place at the respective electrodes. The abrupt increase in current is also observed at this point. The decomposition potential is calculated by plotting current versus applied voltage as shown in the graph.



The intersection of these two straight lines gives the decomposition potential mathematically

$$E_{\text{backemf}} = E_{\text{cathode}} - E_{\text{anode}}$$

The decomposition potential values enable the

- i. Calculation of emf required for continuous electrolysis
- ii. used in separation of metal ion mixture by electrolysis

**Overvoltage:** The excess voltage that has to be applied above the theoretical decomposition potential to start the continuous electrolysis is called Overvoltage.

$$E_D = E_{\text{cathode}} - E_{\text{anode}} + H, \text{ where } H - \text{overvoltage}$$

The factors influencing the overvoltage are

- i. Electrode surface
- ii. Current density
- iii. Temperature
- iv. Rate of stirring of the electrolyte
- v. Nature of substance discharged.

For example the reversible electrode potential of oxygen gas with smooth platinum electrode surface under standard condition is 1.23V.

For example the reversible electrode potential of oxygen gas with smooth platinum electrode surface under standard condition is 1.23V.

But actual gasevolution takes place at a potential of 1.68V. This excess 0.45V is the overvoltage of oxygen on smooth platinum surface.

The knowledge of overvoltage is used in the electrolysis for deposition of metals. Higher the electrode potential cations will be easily discharged at the electrode surface.

### **Electroplating process:**

It is a process of electrolytic deposition of metal, alloy or composite on the base metal by means of electrolysis. The deposits are single metals such as Sn, Cu, Ni, Cr, Ag, Au, Pt etc.

Alloys like Cu-Zn, Cu-Sn, Sn-Ni, Ni-Co, Ni-Cr etc.

Composites such as metals containing solids like WC, SiC

The principal components of electroplating are

1. An electroplating bath containing conducting salt, metal to be plated in soluble form, complexing agent, additives, buffering agent.

2. Cathode i.e. the article to be plated

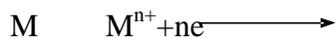
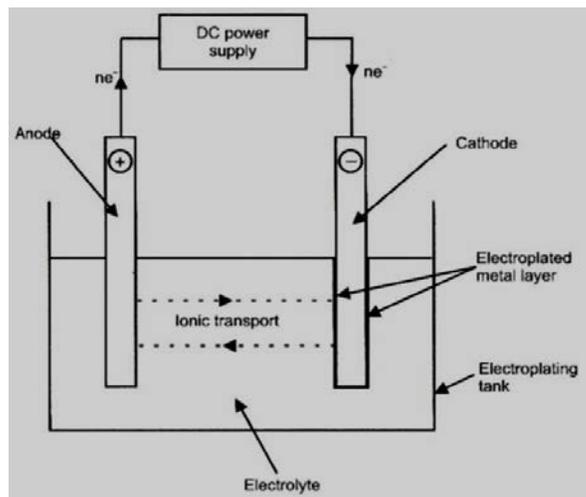
3. Anode: Coating metal itself for inert electrode

4. An inert container to hold all above components.

The object to be plated is made as cathode and the possible reactions at cathode is



The dissolution of metal at anode takes place. If the inert anode is used the oxygen evolution takes place and metal ions are added in the form of metal salt.



The electrolysis conditions are maintained in such a way that current efficiencies of both reactions are same. For successful electroplating pretreatment of object, careful selection of anode with proper plating bath solution, current density and other electrolysis conditions are necessary.

### **Factors influencing the nature of electrode deposit:**

**Current density:** It is the current per unit area of the electrode surface ( $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ )

• At low current densities surface diffusion is fast compared to electron transfer and atoms find most favorable position resulting in well formed deposit.

As the current density increases surface diffusion is slowed down compared to electron transfer and a deposit may not reach most favorable position resulting in less ordered deposit.

- At very high current density (below limiting value) mass transport predominates in solution resulting in bad deposit with rough and powdery texture which is poorly adherent to surface.
- When current density is increased beyond limiting current burnt and spongy appearance of deposit takes place. This is due to depletion of  $H^+$  ions at the cathode and formation of metal hydroxide also takes place. Therefore optimum current density should be applied to get good deposit.

### **Plating bath:**

**Metals salt and electrolyte concentration:** The metal salt concentration is kept high to decrease the mass transfer otherwise the quality of plating is adversely affected. Electrolytes are also added to increase the conductivity of the plating bath. They also have the role of controlling the pH of bath solution particularly if the evolution of  $H_2$  or  $O_2$  at cathode or anode.  $H_2SO_4$  is added to prevent hydrolysis of salt. Boric acid is used as a buffering agent.

### **Complexing agents:**

These are added to convert free metal ions into complexing ions to get fine grained and more adherent deposit. They are also added for the following reasons

- To prevent the reaction of cathode metal and plating ions
- To prevent passivation of anode and increase in current efficiency
- To improve throwing power of plating bath
- To increase the stability of slightly soluble metal salts
- To make potential of plating  $M^{n+}$  more -ve to carry out plating at lower potential.

The most common complexing agents are cyanides, hydroxides, sulphamates, citrates, tartarates etc.

### **Organic additives**

: A wide range of organic compounds are added in low concentration to modify the structure, morphology and properties of the deposit. The common additives are

#### **a) Brighteners**

: These are added to get bright and light reflecting deposit. The reflection takes place only when grain size of deposit is lower than the wavelength of the incident light. Brighteners used to produce microscopically fine deposit parallel to substrate surface. Ex. Aromatic sulphones or sulphonates and compounds containing  $C=N$ ,  $N=C=S$ , or  $>C=O$  groups.

**b) Levellers:** Substrate surface may contain dislocations where plating takes place faster resulting in uneven thickness. When levellers are used they absorb at such regions where rapid deposition takes place and prevent rate of electron transfer. ex. Sodium allyl sulphonates.

**c) Stress relievers or structural modifiers:** An electroplating process involves internal stress. If the stress level is high cracking takes place. Stress relievers reduce the formation of internal stress by modifying the structure of the deposit. Ex. Saccharin

**d) Wetting agents:** In electroplating hydrogen gas evolved at cathode and these gas bubbles adhere to the cathode surface. The gas may try to escape when the plating is over and make the deposit porous and brittle. Wetting agents added detach adsorbed hydrogen gas on the cathode surface and improve the adhesion of the deposit. Ex. Sodium lauryl sulphate.

**pH:** At low pH value, hydrogen gas evolution takes place causing deposit brittle and burnt. At higher pH deposit of insoluble metal hydroxide takes place. Hence optimum pH is maintained by using suitable buffers.

**Temperature:** At slightly higher temperature good deposit takes place due to increase in the surface diffusion of ions. But at high temperature decomposition of organic additives, corrosion of equipment and hydrogen evolution may take place. Hence optimum temperature is used (30 to 60°C)

**Throwing power:** The ability of the plating bath to give uniform and even deposit on the entire surface of a cathode of irregular shape.

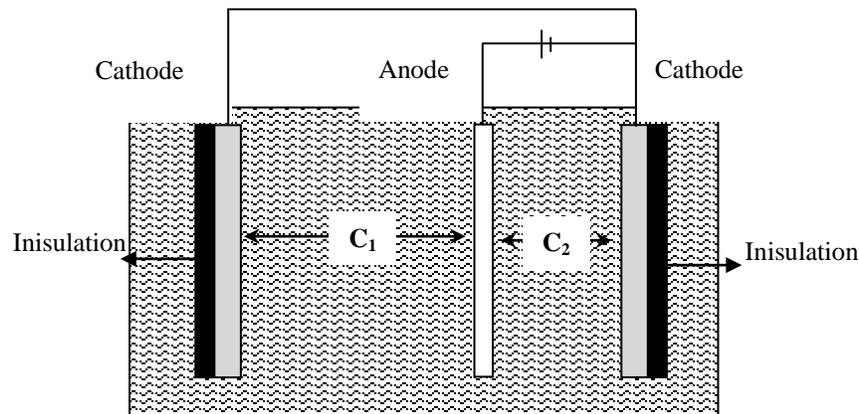
It is determined by Haringblum cell. It consists of an insulating container filled with electrolyte whose throwing power is to be determined. Anode is placed at the center and two cathodes ( $C_1$  &  $C_2$ ) are placed at different distances  $d_1$  &  $d_2$  ( $d_1 > d_2$ ) as shown in the fig.

Electroplating is carried out for sufficient time and weights  $w_1$  &  $w_2$  deposited on cathodes  $C_1$  &  $C_2$  are determined.

The weight of deposit ( $w_1$ ) on cathode  $C_1$  is less because of its lower overpotential. It is calculated by the equation

$$\% \text{ Of T.P.} = 100(x-y)/(x+y-2)$$

where  $x = d_1/d_2$  &  $y = w_2/w_1$



Determination of throwing power

### Electro-plating of Chromium:

Bath:  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  250g + 2.5g  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  (100:1)

Temperature: 45-55°C

Current density: 100-200 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

Current efficiency: 10-15%

Anode: Insoluble anode Pb-Sb or Pb-Sn coated with  $\text{PbO}_2$

Cathode: Object to be plated.

At anode:  $\text{CrO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4$

$2 \text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 + 2\text{H}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

$\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-} + 14 \text{H}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Cr}^{3+} + 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$

$\text{Cr}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cr}$

At Cathode:  $2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Sulphuric acid acts as a catalyst in converting Cr(VI) to Cr(III) by complex anodic reaction. To maintain the concentration of Cr(III) ions in soluble anodes like Pb-Sb, Pb-Sn, alloys are used covered PbO<sub>2</sub> which oxidize Cr(III) to Cr(VI) & control the concentration of Cr(III) ions.

- 1) Cr metal passivates strongly in acid sulphate medium.
- 2) It gives Cr(III) ions on dissolution. In presence of large Cr<sup>3+</sup> ions a black Cr deposit is obtained.
- 3) Difference in efficiency of anode and cathode (anode-100% cathode-20%).

**Uses:** Used in decorative and corrosion resistant finish. Decorative & durable finish like cycles, automobiles, furniture, household fittings, surgical and dental instruments, others like optical instruments, machine tools, electronics parts, piston rings, cylinder liners of diesel engines & aircraft cylinders.

### Electroplating of Nickel (Watt's bath) :

#### Watts nickel plating solutions

Nickel electroplating is a process of depositing nickel on a metal part. Parts to be plated must be clean and free of dirt, corrosion, and defects before plating can begin.<sup>[2]</sup> To clean and protect the part during the plating process a combination of heat treating, cleaning, masking, pickling, and etching may be used.<sup>[1]</sup> Once the piece has been prepared it is immersed into an electrolyte solution and is used as the cathode. The nickel anode is dissolved into the electrolyte in form of nickel ions. The ions travel through the solution and deposit on the cathode.

Watts solution was developed by Oliver P. Watts in 1916. Now it is most popular nickel electroplating solution. Plating operation in Watts solutions is low cost and simple.

Bath composition:

Nickel sulphate,	NiSO <sub>4</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O:	32-40	oz/gal	(240-300	g/l)
Nickel chloride,	NiCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O:	4-12	oz/gal	(30-90	g/l)
Boric acid,	H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub> :	4-6	oz/gal	(30-45	g/l)

Operating conditions:

Temperature:	105-150°F				(40-65°C)
Cathode current density:	20-100	A/ft <sup>2</sup>	(2-10	A/dm <sup>2</sup> )	PH: 3.0-4.5

Mechanical properties:

Tensile strength:	50000-70000	psi	(345-485	MPa)
Elongation:				10-30%
Hardness:	130-200			HV
Internal stress:	18000-27000	psi	(125-185	MPa)

Brighteners:

- Carrier brighteners (e.g. paratoluene sulfonamide, benzene sulphonic acid) in concentration 0.1-3 oz/gal (0.75-23 g/l). Carrier brighteners contain sulfur providing uniform fine Grain structure of the nickel plating.
- Levelers, second class brighteners (e.g. allyl sulfonic acid, formaldehyde chloral hydrate) in concentration 0.0006-0.02 oz/gal (0.0045-0.15 g/l) produce (in combination with carrier brighteners) brilliant deposit.
- Auxiliary brighteners (e.g. sodium allyl sulfonate, pyridinum propyl sulfonate) in concentration 0.01-0.5 oz/gal (0.075-3.8 g/l).
- Inorganic brighteners (e.g. cobalt, zinc) in concentration 0.01-0.5 oz/gal (0.075-3.8 g/l). Inorganic brighteners impart additional luster to the coating.

### **Electroless plating:**

It is defined as deposition of metal or alloy from metal salt solution onto an electrolytically active surface by controlled chemical reduction of  $M^{n+}$  ions by suitable reducing agents without using electrical energy.

#### **Advantages:**

- 1) Does not require electrical power source.
- 2) Semiconductors & insulators like plastic can be coated.
- 3) Good throwing power, hence uniform coating is achieved on article of irregular shape.
- 4) Plating is harder than electro-plating.
- 5) Deposits have unique chemical, mechanical and magnetic properties.
- 6) Levelers are not used.

### **Distinction between Electro-plating and electroless-plating**

	<b>Electro-plating</b>	<b>Electroless-plating</b>
Anode reaction	$M \rightarrow M^{n+} + ne$	$R \rightarrow \text{Oxidized product} + ne$
Driving force	power supply	auto-catalytic redox reaction
Site of anode reaction	separate anode	article to be plated
Site of cathode reaction	article to be plated	article to be plated with Catalytically active surface
Nature of deposit	pure metal or definite alloy	Metal contaminated with O/R species
Throwing power	Satisfactory	Good
Application	applicable only to conductors	applicable both for conductors and non-conductors

### **Electroless plating of copper**

Pretreatment and activation of surface: The surface is treated to remove grease and other impurities. In case of insulators, the surface is activated by dipping in stannous chloride and then in palladium chloride. The surface is dried.

Platingbath:

Bath:Coppersulphate12gperlitre

Reducingagent:Formaldehyde8gperlitre

Buffer:NaOH15g/litre&Rochellesalt14g/litre

Complexingagent:EDTA20g/litre

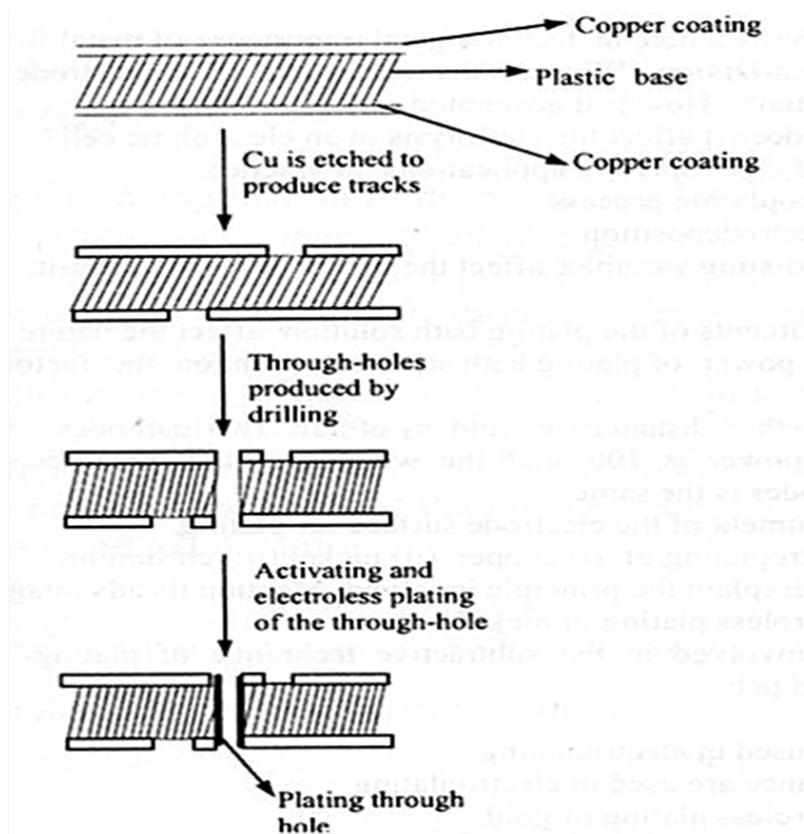
pH:11

Temperature:25<sup>0</sup>C

### Reactions

Atanode  $2\text{HCHO} + 4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow 2\text{HCOO}^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2 + 2\text{e}^-$

Atcathode  $\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$



### DoublesidedPrintedcircuitboard

Uses: Used in printedcircuitboard,plating on conductors,plating through hole connections

**Module-3****Fuels and Solar Energy**

**Fuels: Introduction, classification, calorific value-gross and net calorific values, determination of calorific value of fuel using bomb calorimeter, numerical problems. Cracking: Introduction, fluidized catalytic cracking, synthesis of petrol by Fischer-Tropsch process, reformation of petrol, octane and cetane number. Gasoline and diesel. Knocking and their mechanism, antiknocking agents, power alcohol, biodiesel.**

**5 HOURS**

**Content :**

- **Introduction, classification.**
- **Calorific value-gross and net calorific values, determination of calorific value of fuel using bomb calorimeter, numerical problems.**
- **Cracking: Introduction, fluidized catalytic cracking, synthesis of petrol by Fischer-Tropsch process, reformation of petrol.**
- **octane and cetane number.**
- **Gasoline and diesel. Knocking and their mechanism, antiknocking agents.**
- **power alcohol, biodiesel.**

**Fuels**

**Introduction:** Energy is the fundamental aspect of human life. Energy is defined as the capacity to do work. Everything we do is connected to energy in one form or the other. Chemical fuels are used in transportation, communication and illumination etc.,

**Chemical fuels:** It is defined as naturally occurring or artificially manufactured combustible carbonaceous material used mainly as source of light and heat in few cases as a source of raw material.

**Classification of fuels:** On the basis of origin, fuels are classified as primary and secondary fuels.

Physical state	Primary fuels	Secondary fuels
Solid	Wood, Coal	Charcoal, coke
Liquid	Petroleum	Petrol, diesel
Gas	Natural gas	LPG

**Primary fuels:** It is the one which is natural and doesn't require any chemical processing before utilization.

**Ex:** wood, coal, crude petroleum and natural gas.

**Secondary fuels:** They are produced from naturally occurring substances by subjecting to treatments, which alter their chemical composition and improve their calorific value.

**Ex:** Coke, gas-LPG, Diesel, Petrol, Kerosene

**Hydrocarbon fuels:** Fuels which contain hydrogen and carbon are called hydrocarbon fuels. Ex: Petrol, diesel, kerosene.

**Calorific value of a fuel:** It is measured in terms of heating efficiency.

It is defined as the amount of heat evolved by the complete combustion of unit quantity (mass or volume) of the fuel in air or oxygen.

It is expressed in J/Kg for solid and liquid fuels and  $J/m^3$  for gaseous fuels.

**Calorific values are expressed in two ways:**

1. Gross calorific value (GCV)      2. Net Calorific value (NCV)

**Gross calorific value:** Gross calorific value is defined as the quantity of heat evolved by the complete combustion of unit quantity of the fuel in air or oxygen and the products of combustion are brought down to room temperature.

Most of the fuels contain carbon and hydrogen. On combustion carbon and hydrogen are converted into CO<sub>2</sub> and steam respectively.

On cooling, the combustion product steam gets condensed to water and liberates its latent heat. Hence, GCV is made up heat of combustion of fuel plus the latent heat of condensation of steam. Therefore, GCV is always higher than the net calorific value.

**Net Calorific value:** It is defined as the quantity of heat evolved by the complete combustion of unit quantity of the fuel and the products of combustion are let off into the atmosphere.

i.e., the combustion products are not cooled to room temperature but they are allowed to escape into the atmosphere. Hence, this calorific value does not include latent heat of steam. Therefore, Net calorific value is always lower than GCV.

$NCV = GCV - \% \text{ of } H_2 \times 0.09 \times \text{latent heat of steam}$

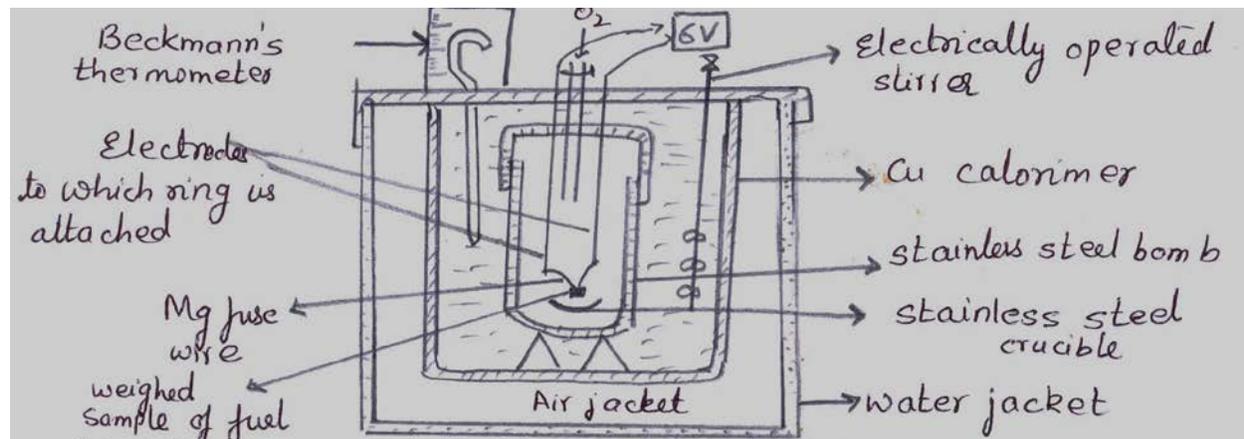
**Determination of calorific value of a solid or liquid fuel using Bomb Calorimeter:**

Bomb calorimeter is used to determine the Calorimeter value of solid as liquid fuels

**Principle:** A Known wt of a liquid as solid fuel is completely burnt and liberated heat is absorbed by a Known weight of water by recording the rise in temperature of water and Knowing specific heat water calorific value is calculated

**Construction:** It consist of an air tight stainless steel bomb placed inside the copper calorimeter the calorimeter is surrounded by air and water jacket to prevent the heat loss to surrounding because of radiation the calorimeter is also fitted with an electrically operated stirrer to mix water mg fuse wire to start combustion an O<sub>2</sub> inlet to support combustion and Beckmanns thermometer to read the temperature.

**Working :** A known wt (x) of the fuel in the form of pellet is taken in a crucible and placed inside the bomb. The bomb is kept inside a copper calorimeter containing a know weight of water Initial temperature (T<sub>1</sub>) of water is noted after stirring. Oxygen is pumped into the bomb through O<sub>2</sub> valve and the fuel is ignited using mg fuse wire and it is absorbed by water calorimeter .The maximum temperature (T<sub>2</sub>) attained by water is noted

**Calculation:**

Heat Liberated due to combustion of x gm of fuel = XL absorbed by water and apparatus

$= (w+w) (T_2 - T_1)$  Heat liberated = Heat absorb

$W =$  Mass of water in Calorimeters in g =  $W \times S$

$W =$  Water equivalent of the calorimeter in g

$W =$  Wt of apparatus x Specific heat =  $W^1 S$

$L = H C V$  in cal/g

$HCV = \frac{(W+W) \times S (T_2 - T_1)}{x}$  Kj/kg

X

$LCV = HCL -$  Latent heat of water formed

$= (HCL - 0.091 \times H \times S \times 587)$  Cal /gm

Where latent heat of steam = 587 Cal/g

**Numericals problems on Bomb calorimeter**

A) On burning  $0.76 \times 10^{-3}$  Kg a solid fuel in a bomb calorimeter, the temperature of 2.5 Kg of water is increased from  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $28^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The water equivalent of calorimeter and latent heat of steam are  $0.486\text{Kg}$   $2457 \text{ KJ/Kg}$  respectively. Calculate its GCV and NCV. Given Sp. heat =  $4.187 \text{ KJ/Kg/}^{\circ}\text{C}$  and % of  $\text{H}_2$  is 2.5

Ans) Given  $m=0.75\text{g}=0.76 \times 10^{-3}\text{kg}$

$$w_1+w_2=(2.5+0.486) \text{ kg}=2.986\text{kg}$$

$$\Delta t= t_2-t_1=28-25=3^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$s=4.2\text{kJkg}^{-1}\text{C}^{-1} = 4.2 \times 10^3 \text{ J kg}^{-1}\text{C}^{-1}$$

$$L=2457\text{kJkg}^{-1}=2457 \times 10^3 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$$

$$\text{a) Gross C.V.} = \frac{(w_1+w_2)s\Delta t}{m} = \frac{2.986 \times 3 \times 4.2 \times 10^3}{0.756 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ J/Kg} = 49351.5 \text{ kJ/Kg}$$

$$\text{NCV} = [\text{GCV} - \text{Latent heat of steam}] = [49351.5 - 2.5 \times 0.09 \times 2457] \text{ KJ/Kg} \\ = 48798.2 \text{ KJ/Kg}$$

b)  $0.78\text{g}$  of coal containing 1.9% hydrogen. When burnt in a bomb calorimeter, increased the temperature of  $2.7\text{kg}$  water from  $27.20^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $29.70^{\circ}\text{C}$ . if the water equivalent of calorimeter is  $1.2\text{kg}$ . calculate gross and net calorific value (specific heat of water  $4.187\text{kJ/kg/}^{\circ}\text{C}$ , latent of steam  $2457\text{kJ/Kg}$ ).

Ans) Given  $m=0.78\text{g}=0.78 \times 10^{-3}\text{kg}$

$$w_1+w_2=(2.7+1.2) \text{ kg}=3.986\text{kg}$$

$$\Delta t= t_2-t_1=2.5^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$s=4.2\text{kJkg}^{-1}\text{C}^{-1} = 4.2 \times 10^3 \text{ J kg}^{-1}\text{C}^{-1}$$

$$L=2457\text{kJkg}^{-1}=2457 \times 10^3 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Gross C.V.} = \frac{(w_1+w_2)s\Delta t}{m} = \frac{3.986 \times 2.5 \times 4.2 \times 10^3}{0.78 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ J/Kg} = 5365.5 \text{ kJ/Kg}$$

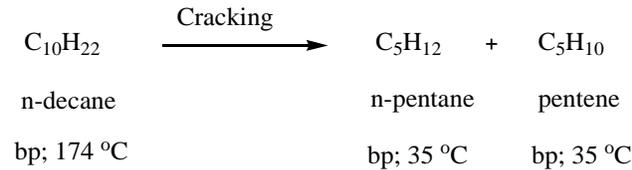
$$\text{NCV} = [\text{GCV} - \text{Latent heat of steam}] = [5365.5 - 2.5 \times 0.09 \times 2457] \text{ KJ/Kg} \\ = 48126.2 \text{ KJ/Kg}$$

**Petroleum:** It is found under the rocky strata of the earth crust. It is non renewable energy source as it takes millions of years to form. It is naturally occurring substance made up of several hydrocarbons.

Petroleum is subjected to fractional distillation to get various fractions like petrol, diesel, kerosene. The process of separating various components of petroleum from one another having different boiling points is called fractional distillation. This process is known as refining of petroleum.

**Chemical processing of petroleum:** Fractional distillation of petroleum physically separates the fractions of crude oil into its constituent fractions. These fractions are further converted into useful products by subjecting to various chemical process. The two important process used to achieve these objectives are i) Cracking ii) Reforming

**Cracking:** Breaking up of high molecular weight hydrocarbons into more useful low molecular weight hydrocarbons in presence of heat is called cracking. This involves the change in molar mass.



**There are two types of cracking process have been recognised**

**Thermal cracking:** In this process petroleum is subjected to high pressure and temperature (700 C) in the absence of air and a catalyst. This method is not used since there is no control over the product of cracking and the efficiency is low.

**Catalytic cracking:** In this process petroleum is subjected to low pressure and temperature in presence of catalyst. This cracking process is control over the end products.

**Fluidized catalytic cracking:**

Catalyst used:  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{SiO}_2$

Pressure : 1-2 atm

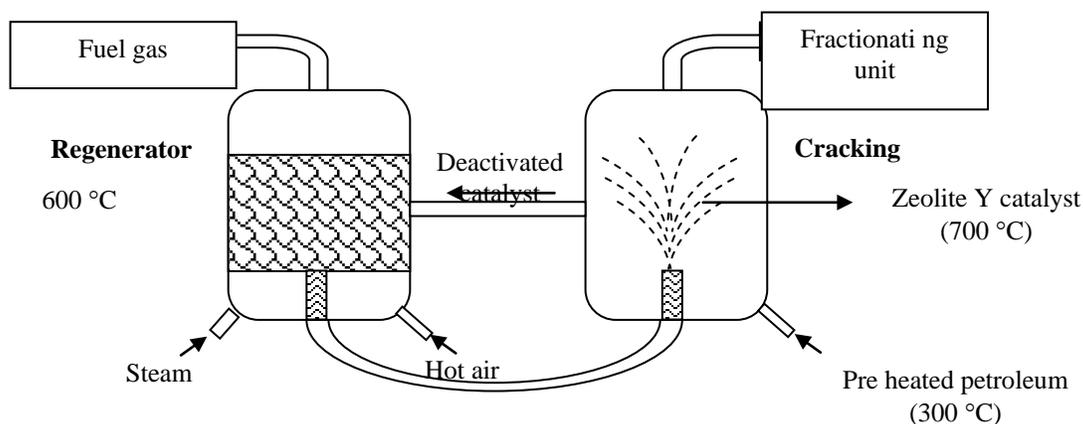
Temperature; 480-600°C

Feed stock: Heavy oil

Yield: 70-80%(octane gasoline 40% , gas 6% and gas oil 37-47%)

**Working or method:**

In this process, oil is preheated to about 300°C is sprayed from the bottom into a riser column containing the catalyst. Oil mixes with powdered catalyst at 700 °C. Then it carries the catalyst and the oil mixture in a fluidized state into the reactor, then cracking takes place. Cracked products are taken and transferred into a fractionating column for further separation. Spent catalyst is pumped from the catalyst chamber into a regeneration chamber. Hot air is blown through the chamber to burn the carbon deposit on the catalyst surface. The regenerated catalyst is sent back to the catalyst chamber. Thus the process of cracking is continuous.

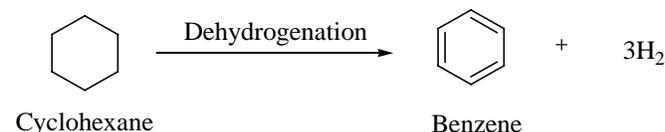
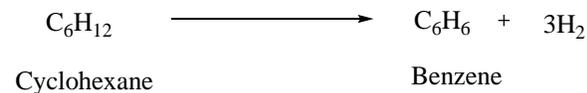


**Advantages of the method:**

- 1) The yield of petrol is higher
- 2) The quality of petrol produced is better
- 3) Cracking process can be controlled



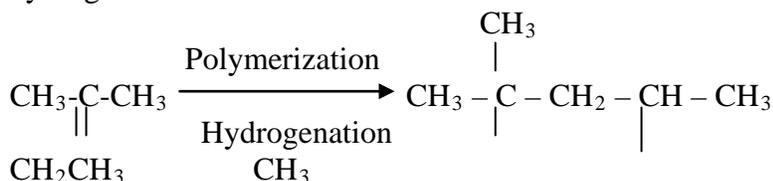
**Dehydrogenation:** This process involves the conversion of cycloalkanes into aromatic compounds.



**Cyclization and dehydrogenation:** This process refers to the conversion of straight chain hydrocarbons into cyclic compounds followed by dehydrogenation.



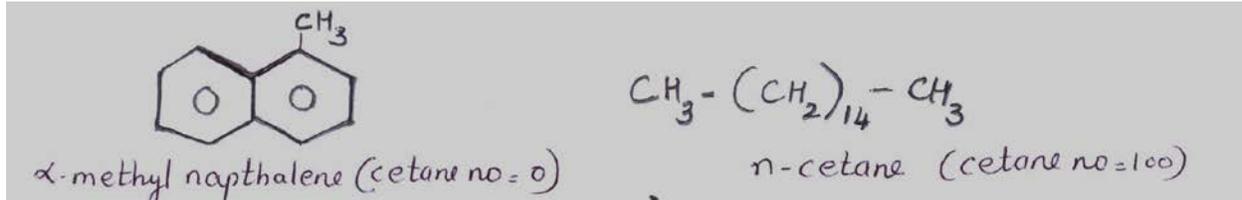
**Polymerization:** This process involves the formation of high molecular mass followed by hydrogenation.



**Octane number:** The knocking characteristics of petrol sample are described by the octane number. Higher the octane number lower is the tendency to knock and better is the quality of the petrol. Isooctane (2,2,4-trimethyl-pentane) has least knocking tendency and its octane number is arbitrarily fixed as 100. N-heptane a straight chain hydrocarbon has the highest tendency to knock and its octane number is fixed as 0. Therefore, octane number is defined as the % of isooctane present in a standard mixture of isooctane and n-heptane which knocks at the same compression ratio as the petrol being tested.



**Cetane number:** Quality of petrol sample is expressed in terms of its octane number. Where as the quality of diesel is expressed by means of cetane number. Cetane or hexadecane (C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>34</sub>) is an ideal fuel with a cetane number 100.  $\alpha$ -methyl naphthalene has a cetane number of zero. Cetane number is defined as the % of hexadecane present in a standard mixture of cetane and  $\alpha$ -methyl naphthalene which knocks at the same compression ratio as the diesel being tested.



**Gasoline knocking :** The performance of motor car is measured in terms of Km/l of petrol, which depends on the quality of the fuel.

Important method of obtaining more power from petrol is increasing the compression ratio of the engine.

$$\text{Compression ratio of engine} = \frac{\text{Initial volume of petrol and air mixture sucked into cylinder}}{\text{Final volume of petrol and air mixture after compression}}$$

Increases the compression ratio of the engine increases the efficiency of the engine. In the cylinder, combustion reaction is initiated by a spark as a result flame spreads rapidly and smoothly through gaseous mixture. By this petrol undergoes combustion under thermal conditions and the pressure increases inside the cylinder. However, beyond a particular compression ratio, the mixture of air and petrol suddenly bursts into flames. This process is accompanied by a sharp knock in the internal combustion engine due to explosive combustion producing a shock wave which lose its energy by hitting the walls of the cylinder and piston. As a result a rattle sound is heard which is referred as knocking.

“Knocking is defined as the production of shock wave in an IC engine due to explosive combustion of mixture of petrol and air which increases compression ratio beyond a certain value leading to rattle sound.”

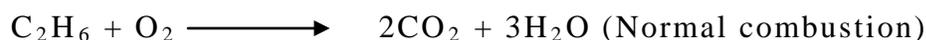
#### **Affects of Knocking:**

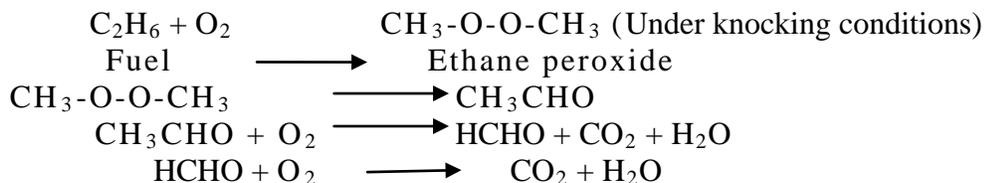
Knocking causes the following effects

1. Produces undesirable rattling sound
2. Decreases efficiency of engine and power output
3. Increases the fuel consumption
4. Causes the mechanical damage to engine parts
5. The driving becomes rather unpleasant

#### **Mechanism of Knocking:**

Under ideal conditions, there is a slow oxidation of fuel, during which oxygen combines with a few hydrocarbon molecules and activates them. The activated molecules combine with hydrocarbon molecules and a chain reaction is set up resulting in a smooth combustion. In case of knocking conditions, all the hydrocarbon molecules activated and they combine at a faster rate to set up a chain reaction. Hence knocking occurs. The knocking is due to the formation of unstable peroxide decomposes rapidly to give a number of gaseous compounds. This gives rise to pressure waves which knock against the engine walls.





**Diesel knocking:** The diesel engine works on the principle of compression. Air is drawn into the cylinder and compressed and the temperature rises to 500°C. The fuel is injected at this point as a finely divided spray. Hydrocarbons in the fuel absorb heat from the air, vaporize and burn on attaining ignition temperature. Knocking in diesel engine occurs due to ignition delay which is caused by the chemical nature of hydrocarbons in diesel, i.e., straight chain hydrocarbons have shorter ignition delay than branched and aromatic hydrocarbons. Ignition delay is caused because time is required for vaporization of fuel and raising the temperature of the vapour to its ignition temperature, i.e., accumulation of fuel in the engine which leads to explosive combustion. This is called diesel knocking.

**Antiknocking agents in gasoline:** The substances added to control knocking are called anti-knocking agents. These substances improve the octane number of petrol. Example: Tetraethyl lead (TEL)  $[\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4]$ : TEL acts as an anti-knocking agent; it reacts with peroxy compounds and decomposes them, thereby preventing knocking. TEL is added in the form of ethyl fluid. TEL is a mixture of tetraethyl lead, dichloroethane and dibromoethane. It has some disadvantages as follows.

- After combustion lead is deposited as lead oxide on piston and engine walls; it leads to mechanical damage.
- Lead is a poisonous air pollutant.
- It spoils the catalyst used in catalytic converter.

**Antiknocking agents in diesel:**

The substances added to control knocking are called anti-knocking agents. These substances improve the cetane number of diesel. Cetane number can be improved by adding substances called dopants like ethyl nitrate, acetone, acetone peroxide which help in starting the engine.

**Power alcohol:**

A mixture of ethyl alcohol and gasoline blend, which can be used as fuel in internal combustion engine, is known as power alcohol or gasohol.

Absolute alcohol is mixed with ether, benzene etc. compounds and one volume of this is mixed with four volumes of petrol and is used as a fuel.

“Ethyl alcohol is used as an additive to motor fuels to act as a fuel for IC engines; it is called power alcohol.”

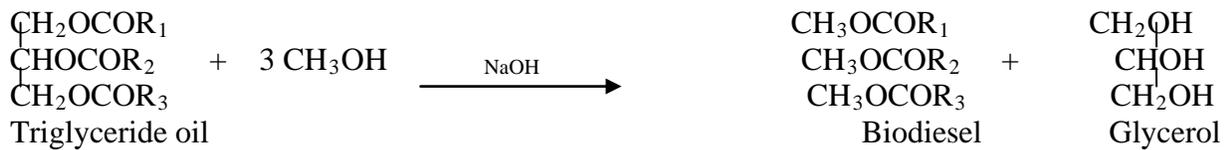
**Advantages:**

- The power output is good.
- It has better antiknock property.
- Ethanol is biodegradable; hence it is an environmentally friendly fuel.
- The use of ethanol in alcohol increases the oxygen content of the fuels and promotes more and complete combustion of hydrocarbons in gasoline.
- It reduces carbon monoxide emission.

**Biodiesel:** Biodiesel is a renewable, oxygenated fuel obtained from a variety of agricultural resources such as soya beans or rape seeds. Biodiesel is non-toxic, biodegradable, a replacement for petroleum diesel. Chemically, biodiesel is a fatty acid monoalkyl ester. The oil/fat are

triglycerides esters of fatty acids and their use in engines require extensive engine modifications. However, it is possible to convert these triglycerides into substance of diesel quality by transesterification. "Transesterification is alcoholysis of the triglyceride oil in the presence of a base like NaOH to obtain biodiesel. Thus, biodiesel is a mixture of mono alkyl esters of long chain fatty acids.

The transesterification of triglyceride oil with methanol in presence of NaOH is given below:



The direct transesterification in presence of alkali results in the formation of soap. This soap forms a semi solid mass at ambient temperature and affects the engine performance. It also affects the separation of glycerol from diesel layer. This soap formation is avoided by first esterifying the free fatty acid in presence of an acid catalyst. This is followed by base catalyzed transesterification to get biodiesel. The transesterification proceeds at RT but the rate can be increased by raising temperature to 60° C.

#### Advantages of biodiesel:

1. It is made using renewable sources and feed stocks
2. Readily undergoes biodegradation, nontoxic, suitable for sensitive environments.
3. It has higher flash point than the diesel but lower ignition point.
4. It has higher cetane number (48-60) compared to diesel (40-55)
5. Use of biodiesel reduces green house gases.

**SolarEnergy : Introduction,utilization and conversion,photovoltaic cells-importance,construction and working.design:modules,panels and arrays.Advantages and disadvantages of PV cells.Production of solar grade silicon (union carbide process),doping of silicon-diffusion technique (n and p types) and purification of Silicon (Zone refining). 5Hours**

**Content :**

- **Introduction,utilization and conversion.**
- **Photovoltaic cells-importance,construction and working.**
- **Design:modules,panels and arrays.Advantages and disadvantages of PV cells.**
- **Production of solar grade silicon (union carbide process).**
- **Doping of silicon-diffusion technique (n and p types),.**
- **Purification of Silicon (Zone refining).**

## Solar Energy

### **Solar Energy:**

At presently dominant energy sources are petroleum, natural gas, hydro power and nuclear energy. As the reserves of fossil fuels are very limited and are being depleted very fast, search for alternative sources of energy has gained lot of importance. The world is looking towards the natural resources such as solar energy, wind energy, etc., out of these solar energy is the potential candidate. The energy supplied by this is enormous, continuous and free of cost.

Solar energy provides heat and light. Therefore in last few decades lot of effort has been made towards the use of solar energy. It is also possible to convert heat energy of the sun into electricity.

### **The solar energy utilization and conversation can be of two types**

- 1) Direct solar power
- 2) Indirect solar power

**Direct solar power:** involves one step transformation into a usable form.

Example: a) photovoltaic cell to generate electricity where solar energy is directly converted to electrical energy.

b) Sunlight hits the dark absorber surface of a solar thermal collector and the surface warms. The heat energy may be carried away by a fluid circuit.

c) Sunlight strikes a solar sail on a space craft and is converted directly into a force on the sail which causes motion of the craft.

**Indirect solar power:** involves more than one transformation to reach usable form.

Ex-a) photosynthesis where solar energy is converted to chemical energy which can be later used as energy source.

b) photo splitting of water to produce  $H_2$  which can be used as a fuel.

c) Petroleum resources (fossil fuel) is a class of solar energy.

**Photo-Voltaic cells:** The device which is used to convert heat energy of the sun into electricity is called solar cells or photo voltaic cells. They are often referred as semiconductor devices that convert solar energy into electricity.

### **Advantages:**

1. Fuel source is vast and essentially infinite.
2. No emissions, no combustion or radioactive residues for disposal. Does not contribute to global change or pollution.
3. Low operating cost (no fuel).
4. No moving parts and so no wear and tear.
5. High reliability in modules.
6. No recharging
7. They do not corrode.
8. Can be integrated into new or existing building structures

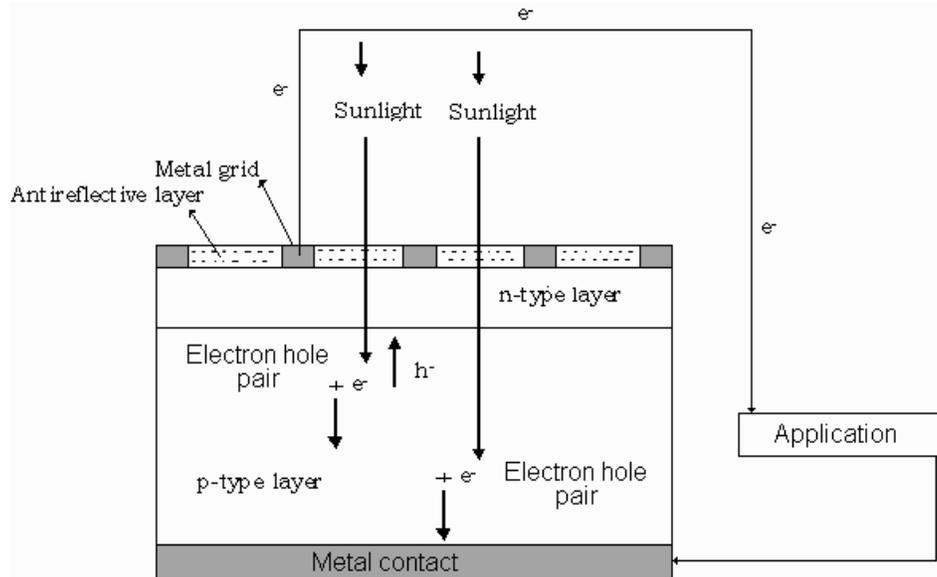
### **Disadvantages:**

1. Sun light is a diffuse, i.e., it is relatively low density energy.
2. High installation cost.
3. Poor reliability of auxiliary elements including storage.
4. Energy can be produced only during the day time.

### **Construction and Working of Photo-Voltaic cells:**

Semiconductors like silicon has the capacity to absorb light and deliver a portion of the energy of the absorbed photons to carry charge carriers (electrons and hole). Thus solar cell is a semiconductor diode that has been designed carefully so that it can absorb the light energy efficiently and convert light energy from the sun into electrical energy.

**A conventional solar cell structure is shown in figure:**

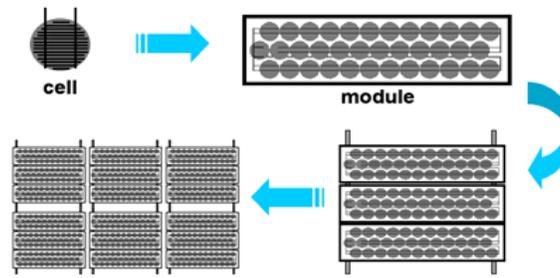


**Construction:** A typical silicon photo voltaic cell composed of thin layer of phosphorus doped silicon (n-type) on top of boron doped (p-type) silicon. Hence these two layers form p-n junction. A metallic grid is the electrical contact of the diode and allows light to fall on the semiconductor between the grid lines. An antireflective layer between the grid lines increases the amount of light transmitted to semiconductor.

**Working:** When light radiation falls on the p-n junction diode, electron-hole pairs are generated by the absorption of radiation. The electrons are diffused and collected at the n-type end and holes are diffused and collected at the p-type end. When these two ends are electrically connected through a conductor, there is a flow of current between the two ends through the external circuit. Thus photoelectric current is produced and available for use.

**Design: modules, panels & arrays:**

The current out put of a cell depends on its efficiency and size and is proportional to the intensity of sun light striking the surface of the cell. Therefore, photovoltaic cells are connected electrically in series or parallel circuits to produce higher voltages, currents and power levels. A number of solar cells electrically connected to each other and mounted in a support structure or frame is called a photovoltaic module. Modules are designed to supply electricity at a certain voltage, such as a common 12 volts system. Photovoltaic panels include one or more modules assembled as a pre-wired, field installable unit. A photovoltaic array is the complete power generating unit, consisting of any number of photovoltaic modules and panels.

**Advantages:**

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3. Low operating cost (no fuel).
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**Disadvantages:**

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4. Energy can be produced only during the day time.

**Production of solar grade silicon by union carbide process :**

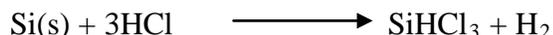
Silicon is obtained by reducing silicon dioxide ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) with coke in an electrode arc furnace at about  $1300\text{-}2000^\circ\text{C}$ .



The obtained liquid silicon collects at the bottom of the furnace. Then it is dried and cooled. The silicon obtained by this process is called metallurgical grade silicon. It is 98 % pure silicon.

This metallurgical grade silicon is not suitable for semiconductor devices. It demands greater purity than the metallurgical grade silicon.

To get high purity silicon, metallurgical grade silicon is refined by treating it with anhydrous HCl at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  in a fluidized bed reactor to form trichlorosilanes ( $\text{SiHCl}_3$ ).

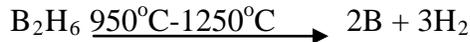


Trichlorosilanes has low boiling point of  $31.8^\circ\text{C}$ , therefore it is purified by fractional distillation to remove halide impurities ( $\text{FeCl}_3$ ,  $\text{AlCl}_3$ ,  $\text{BCl}_3$ ). In the next step, lighter impurities like Al, B, P, Fe, Cu are eliminated. Finally, pure  $\text{SiHCl}_3$  is treated with hydrogen at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$  for 200-300 hrs to produce a very pure form of silicon. This process is often referred to as Siemens process.

**Doping of Silicon by Diffusion Technique:**

Si is Semiconductor and its Conductivity can be increased by doping with minute amount as either trivalent or penta valent atom. Doping is commonly caused out by diffusion technique. Typical dopant sources used are B,  $\text{Br}_3$ ,  $\text{POCl}_3$  (liquids) ,  $\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$  ,  $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$  (Solids)  $\text{PH}_5$ ,  $\text{B}_2\text{H}_6$ (gases)

**P-doping**-In case of p-doping a required quantity of dopant source like  $B_2H_6$  is subjected to pyrolysis in a reactor containing Si substrate trivalent B atom formed by decomposition diffuse into the lattice of Si.



The valency of silicon is 4. When trivalent impurity like boron is doped into silicon it provides three valence electrons. These electrons combine with three valence electrons of silicon atom to form covalent bonds. There is a shortage of electron for the silicon atom to form another covalent bond. This shortage of electron is treated as hole. This makes silicon **p-type** semiconductor. The extent of diffusion is regulate by temperature and concentration of the impurity atom.

**N-doping**-In case of n-doping a required quantity of dopant source like  $PH_5$  is subjected to pyrolysis in a reactor containing Si substrate. Pentavalent P atom formed by decomposition diffuse into the lattice of Si.



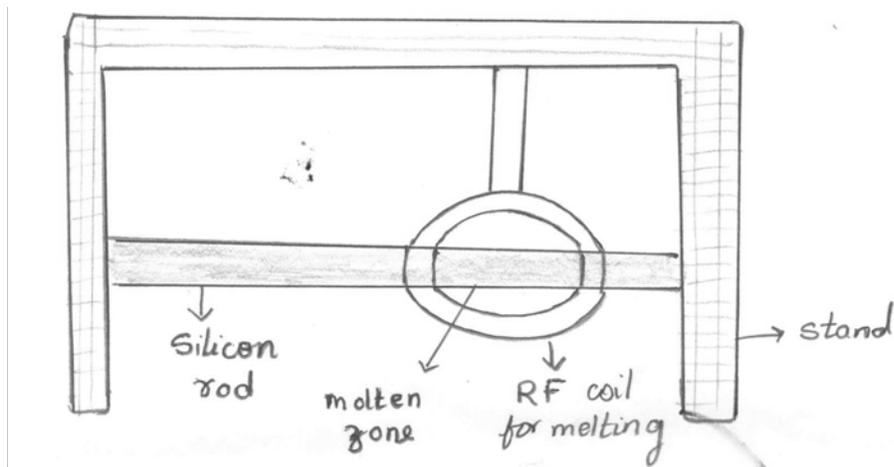
A n-type silicon can be obtained by heating a silicon wafel below its melting point in an atmosphere of n-type impurity such as Phosphorus. The valency of silicon is 4.

When pentavalent impurity like phosphorus is doped into silicon it provides five valence electrons. Out of 5 valence electrons of phosphorus four will combine with four valence electrons of silicon atom to form bonds. There is an extra electron other than the electrons involved in bonding. This extra electron is treated as negative charge. This makes the silicon **n-type** semiconductor.

### **Purification of silicon (Zone refining)**

The principle of zone refining is that when a solid is melted, the impurities tend to concentrate in the molten zone. A vertical zone refiner is used in the purification of silicon. A rod of silicon to be purified is clamped as shown in fig. and is heated by a RF coil to the melting point of silicon in the presence of argon gas.

- 1) This methods gives ultra pure silicon.
- 2) In this method a rod of maternal to be purified is melted and molten zone is moved slowly along the rod from one end to other end during this process impurities show more affinity to words molten zone move along with it leaving behind the puss material.
- 3) A rod of si is taqen in a furnace Containing high frequency induction coil for heating one end of the rod is heated almost near to its melting point.
- 4) The coil is now slowly moved to the adjacent along the rod and thereby shifting the molten zone also .
- 5) During this process impurities show more affinity towards molten zone and more along with it leaving behind pure silicon in this way heating coil is gradually moved to words and of rod .
- 6) Impurities present throughout the rod also more along with the molten zone and finally get concentrated not other end of the rod.
- 7) The process is repeated several times and finally the end of rod where impurities have collected in cut off remaining part of the rod containing Si with almost 100% purity .



**Fig : Zone Refining**

**MODULE-4**  
**HIGH POLYMERS**

**Introduction types of polymerization: addition and condensation mechanism of polymerization-free radical mechanism taking vinyl chloride as an example .molecular weight of polymers :number average and weight average ,numerical problems. Glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ): Factors influencing  $T_g$ -Flexibility, inter molecular forces, molecular mass branching and cross linking. And stereo regularity. Significance of  $T_g$ . Structure property relationship: crystallinity. Tensile strength, elasticity , plastic deformation and chemical resistivity ,Synthesis, properties and applications of PMMA (plexi glass), Teflon polyurethane and polyurethane. Elastomers: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of silicone rubber. Adhesives: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of epoxy resin. Polymer composites Introduction, synthesis properties and applications of Kevlar and carbon fiber. Conducting polymers: Introduction, mechanism of conducting in polyaniline and applications of conducting polyaniline. 10 Hours**

**Contents:**

- **Introduction types of polymerization**
- **Addition Mechanism Of Polymerization-Free Radical Mechanism**
- **Molecular weight of polymers :number average and weight average**
- **Glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ )**
- **Molecular Mass Branching And Cross Linking**
- **Synthesis, properties and applications of PMMA**
- **Elastomers: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of silicone rubber**
- **Adhesives: Introduction, synthesis, properties and applications of epoxy resin**
- **Polymer composites**
- **Synthesis Properties And Applications Of Kevlar And Carbon Fiber**
- **Conducting polymers: Introduction, mechanism of conducting in polyaniline.**

## HIGH POLYMERS

### **Polymer:**

A polymer is a large molecule, made up of small and simple molecules joined together chemically through covalent bond to form one giant macromolecule.

**Monomer:** A monomer is defined as a simple molecule with two or more bonding sites through which it forms covalent linkage with other monomer molecules to form the macromolecule.

**Functionality:** The functionality of a monomer is defined as the number of bonding sites present in a molecule of a monomer.

Example:

- All double bonded compounds like  $\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2$  are bifunctional, i.e. have a functionality of two
- Similarly glycols ( $\text{OH}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{OH}$ ), adipic acid ( $\text{HOOC}-(\text{CH}_2)_4-\text{COOH}$ ) bifunctional
- Phenols have their 2,4,6 positions as active sites, hence they are trifunctional.

**Degree of Polymerization:** The number of times the unit is repeated in a chain is called as Degree of Polymerization. High polymers have a high degree of polymerization and hence large molecular masses.

Molecular weight of a polymer = Molecular weight of repeating unit  $\times$  Degree of Polymerization

### **Types Polymerization Process**

#### **Addition Polymerization or Chain Polymerization:**

The polymerization reaction in which a rapid self-addition of several bifunctional monomers to each other, takes place by chain reaction without the elimination of any by-product is called "Addition or Chain polymerization"

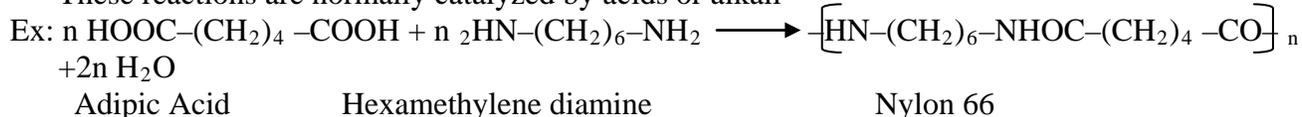
The product has the same elemental composition as the monomer compounds containing reactive double bonds, like alkenes undergo chain polymerization. Addition polymerization is initiated using small amounts of substances called 'initiators'



#### **Condensation Polymerization OR Step polymerization:**

A polymerization reaction in which a bi- or poly functional monomer undergoes intermolecular condensation with another bi- functional monomer having a suitable functional group resulting in continuous elimination of by-products (of small molecules like  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$  etc) is called "condensation or step polymerization".

These reactions are normally catalyzed by acids or alkali



#### **Mechanism of Addition or Chain Polymerization**

Compounds containing reactive double bonds undergo a chain polymerization reaction. Chain polymerization consists of 3 major steps, viz. a. Initiation b. Propagation c. Termination. The first step of the process of polymer chain growth can be brought about by either a free radical or an ion (cation or an anion) or a complex formation between the monomer and a catalyst and accordingly follow different mechanisms.

#### **Free Radical mechanism:**

The first step in this mechanism involves the production of highly reactive species called free radicals by the hemolytic decomposition of the compounds called 'initiators'

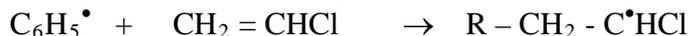
Some typical compounds used as initiators are: Azo compounds, Peroxides, Peracids.

**Initiation:**

The initiators are thermally unstable. In presence of thermal energy it dissociates in to diradical



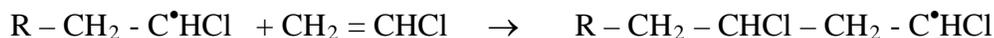
The free radical of the initiator, attacks the double bond in the monomer molecule as



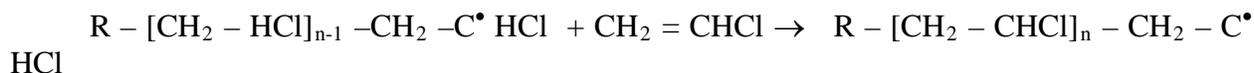
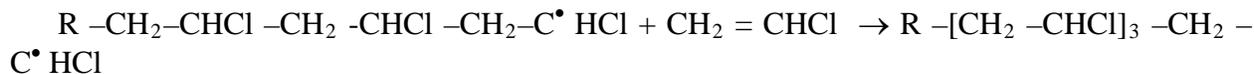
Now, the monomer unit linked to the free radical of the initiator through a sigma bond and the free radical site is shifted from the initiator to the monomer unit

**Propagation:**

In this step, the radical site at the first monomer unit attacks the double bond of a fresh monomer unit results in linking up of second monomer to the first and transfer of the radical site to the second



The new free radical attacks another molecule of monomer, adds it on and transfers the radical site to it, this proceeds in quick succession leading to a growing chain of polymer



**Termination:**

The propagation lasts till the chain growth is stopped by the free-radical site being killed by a termination step. The process of termination results in deactivated chain of polymer, which is called as "dead polymer chain". Depending on the conditions, termination may take place in two different ways

**(i) Termination by coupling:**

Combination of one polymer free radical with another polymer free radical or an initiator free radical to form a dead polymer as

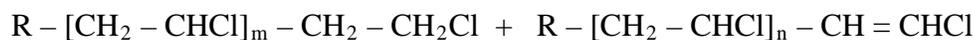


Since this process involves coupling of two lone electrons, it is called 'termination by coupling'.

**(ii) Termination by Disproportionation:**

In this case, one H atom from one growing chain is abstracted by the other (second) growing chain so that two dead polymers, one saturated and one unsaturated are formed





This type of termination results in formation of two molecules of shorter chain length.

### Glass transition temperature (T<sub>g</sub>)

The temperature at which the polymer abruptly transforms from glassy state to rubbery state is known as glass transition temperature. The rotation about the inter unit bonds in the polymer is effectively frozen at T<sub>g</sub> and below T<sub>g</sub>.

Glassy state  $\xrightarrow{T_g}$  Viscoelastic state  $\xrightarrow{T_m}$  Viscofluid State  
 (Hard and brittle) (Rubbery) (Polymer melt)

### Factors influencing glass transition temperature.

**Chain flexibility:** A free rotation about the inter unit bonds in polymer chain imparts flexibility to the polymer. The polymer having simplest chemical structure has lowest T<sub>g</sub> like polyethylene. The presence of double bond, aromatic or bulky side group hinder the freedom of rotation and restricts the chain mobility thereby increases T<sub>g</sub> value.

Polymeric material	Glass transition temp.(T <sub>g</sub> )	Melting temp.(T <sub>m</sub> )
Polyethylene(LDPE)	-110 <sup>0</sup> C	110 <sup>0</sup> C
Polyethylene(HDPE)	-90 <sup>0</sup> C	140 <sup>0</sup> C
Polypropylene	-18 <sup>0</sup> C	180 <sup>0</sup> C
PVC	87 <sup>0</sup> C	210 <sup>0</sup> C
Polystyrene	100 <sup>0</sup> C	240 <sup>0</sup> C

**Presence of plasticizers:** Addition of plasticizer to the polymer reduces the T<sub>g</sub>, since plasticizer imparts flexibility to the polymer.

**Molecular mass:** T<sub>g</sub> decreases as the molecular weight of a polymer decreases. This is because there are more chain ends in low molecular weight polymer. Increase in molecular weight, free rotation of molecules is restricted and T<sub>g</sub> increases. It is not significantly affected if the degree of polymerization is above 250.

**Branching and cross linking:** A small amount of branching will lowers the T<sub>g</sub>. On the other hand a high density of branching brings the polymer chain closer and reduces the chain mobility resulting an increase in T<sub>g</sub>. Cross linked polymers have higher T<sub>g</sub> due to presence of strong covalent bond throughout the structure.

**Intermolecular forces:** Due to presence of large number of polar groups in the polymer chain leads to strong intermolecular forces of attraction which restrict the chain mobility. This leads to increase in T<sub>g</sub>. For example polypropylene is -18<sup>0</sup>C and nylon 66 is 57<sup>0</sup>C. In nylon 66 the hydrogen bonding takes place between individual polymer chains at -NH and -CO groups of the polymer chain.

**Stereoregularity of the polymer:** In Syndiotactic polymers, the substituent group present alternatively one above and another below the plane have higher T<sub>g</sub> than atactic which in turn has higher T<sub>g</sub> than its isotactic. Isotactic polymers have all substituent groups on one side where as atactic polymers have random arrangement of substituent groups.

**Crystallinity:** Higher the crystallinity larger is the T<sub>g</sub> value of polymer. In crystalline polymer the chains are lined up parallel to each other and are held by strong cohesive forces. This leads to higher T<sub>g</sub>.

**Significance of T<sub>g</sub>:**

- It is used to evaluate the flexibility of a polymer and predict its response to mechanical stress.
- It is useful in choosing proper temperature range during processing operations.
- Coefficient of thermal expansion, heat capacity, refractive index, electrical properties etc. at  $T_g$  determine the usefulness of a polymer over a temperature range.

### Structure – Property Relationship

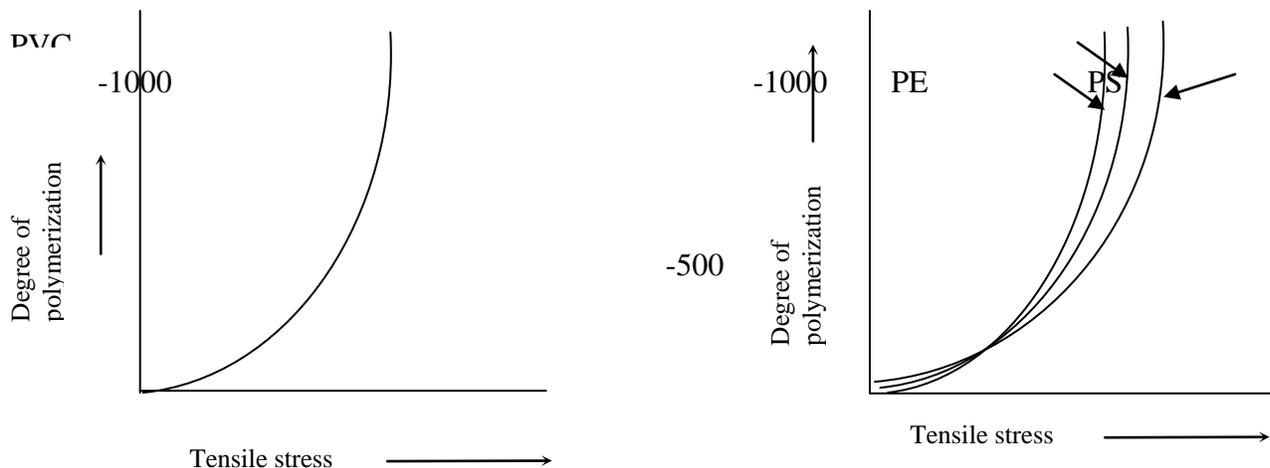
The properties of a polymer such as strength, elasticity, chemical resistivity etc depend greatly on the structure aspects of polymers such as, molecular weight, crystallinity, nature of polymer chains, stereo regularity of the molecule, presence of polar groups etc.

**Strength:** It is measured by magnitude and distribution of the attraction forces between the molecules, viz., i) primary or chemical bond forces ii) secondary or intermolecular forces.

In straight chain and branched chain polymers the individual chains are held together by weak intermolecular forces of attraction, the strength of which increases with the chain length or molecular weight as shown in fig by plotting DP against Tensile strength. High molecular weight polymers accounts for high softening point and tensile strength. Therefore high molecular weight polymers are tougher and more heat resistant. The intermolecular forces increased by the presence of polar groups like carboxyl, hydroxyl, chlorine, fluorine etc.

Strength of straight chain polymers also depends on the slipping power of one molecule over the other. Shape of the polymer molecules greatly affects the resistance to slip. For example in polyethylene limited restriction to movement of one molecule over other whereas in PVC, movement is much more restricted between molecules due to the presence of large lumps of Cl atoms. Therefore PVC is stronger and tough compare to polyethylene.

In cross linked polymers all structural units are linked by strong covalent force. Therefore they are more strong and tough since the movement of intermolecular chains is restricted.



**Crystallinity:** The arrangement of the polymer with respect to each other results in crystalline and amorphous state. In amorphous state molecules are arranged in random position and in crystalline state chains can be aligned in orderly arrangement.

Crystallization imparts a denser packing of molecules, thereby increasing the intermolecular forces of attraction. This accounts for higher and sharper softening point, greater rigidity and strength, and greater density as compared to that of amorphous polymer.

The degree of crystallinity determines several factors such as stiffness, yield point, modulus, hardness, permeability, optical property and heat capacity.

Crystalline regions occur when linear polymer chains without branching and no bulky side groups are orderly arranged parallel and close to each other. High degree of crystallinity makes the polymer to exhibit high tensile strength and high impact strength.

Linear polyethylene is highly crystalline because the atoms will become closer approach and it decreases with branching. On the other hand a polymer with bulky side groups prevents closer approach. Crystallinity decreases by copolymerization because it lowers the structural symmetry.

**Elasticity:** This is a property similar to spring – the polymer elongates on applying force and regains its shape on release of force. It is characterized by recoverance of original shape after a deforming stress is released. For a polymer to show elasticity the individual chains should not break on prolonged stretching. The elasticity increases by

- Introducing cross linking at suitable molecular positions. Cross – links provided at constant interval will hold the molecules and not allow them to slip past each other on stretching.
- Avoiding bulky side groups such as aromatic and cyclic structures on the repeat units
- Inter chain cohesive forces should be low. This is achieved by avoiding polar groups in repeat units.
- Introducing more nonpolar groups on the chain so that the chain don't separate on stretching
- To get an elastic material any factor that introduces crystallinity should be avoided.

**Chemical Resistance:** The chemical nature of monomeric units and their molecular arrangement determines the chemical resistance of polymers.

- Usually chemical attack causes softening, swelling and loss of strength of material.
- A polymer is generally more soluble in a structurally similar solvent.

For e.g polymers containing polar groups like –OH or –COOH are usually attacked by polar solvents like water, alcohols and ketones but are nearly resistant to non polar solvents like benzene, toluene, CCl<sub>4</sub> etc.

But polymers having non-polar groups such as methyl (-CH<sub>3</sub>) and phenyl (-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>) are swollen or even dissolved in non –polar solvents but resistant to polar solvents like water, ethyl alcohol etc.

Polymers which are more aliphatic character are more soluble in aliphatic solvents where as those of aromatic character are more soluble in aromatic solvents.

- For a given polymer, swelling character decreases with increase in molecular weight.
- Chemical resistance increases with increase in the degree of crystallinity, due to denser packing of chain molecules which makes penetration of solvent more difficult.
- Polymers containing unsaturation such as poly isoprene (rubber) and poly butadiene are easily attacked by oxygen or ozone and undergo oxidative degradation.
- Polymers such as poly alkenes, PVC ,poly fluorocarbon have high degree of chemical resistance.

**Plastic deformation:** It is found in thermoplastics, whose structure is deformed to plastic stage on application of heat or pressure or both. The linear polymers without cross linking or branched structure show the greatest degree of plastic deformation. Under pressure polymers deform at high temperature because at high temperature the Van der Waals forces acting between different molecules become more and more weak.

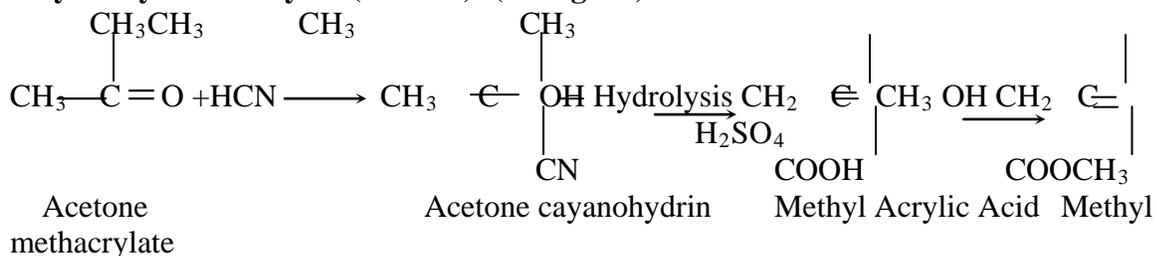
On cooling they become rigid in the moulded shape, because plasticity of the material decreases with fall of temperature. So plasticity is reversible in linear polymers.

In cross linked polymers deformation does not occur on heating, because only primary covalent bonds are present throughout the structure and no slip between the molecules can occur. Therefore in thermosetting polymers plasticity does not increase with increase in temperature.

**Elastic deformation:** The elastic deformation arises from the fact that polymers consists of very long chain molecules, having free rotating groups. Since polymers contain both crystalline and amorphous regions the elongation increases proportionately to the load and reacts instantaneously on withdrawal of the load.

The deformation depends upon the degree of crystallinity, degree of cross linking and glass transition temperature.

**Polymethyl methacrylate(PMMA): (Plexiglass)**

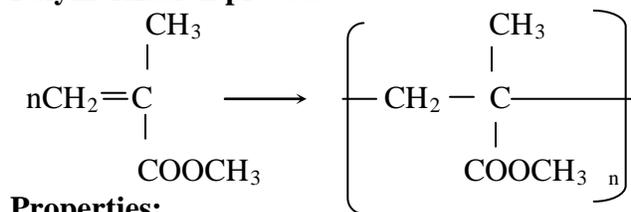


Monomer : Methyl methacrylate

Temperature: 100<sup>0</sup> C

Initiator : Acetyl peroxide or Hydrogen peroxide

**Polymerization process:**



**Properties:**

Amorphous, High resistance to sunlight, High optical transparency

Softening point 130 to 140<sup>0</sup> C

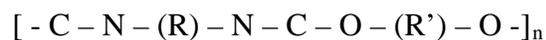
Above 65<sup>0</sup> C it becomes like a rubber structure

Good mechanical properties and resistance to many chemicals but soluble in organic solvents like esters

Low scratch resistance compare to glass

**Uses:** Lenses, artificial eye, dentures bone (artificial teeth), paints, TV screens, attractive sign boards, used in buildings for decorative purposes.

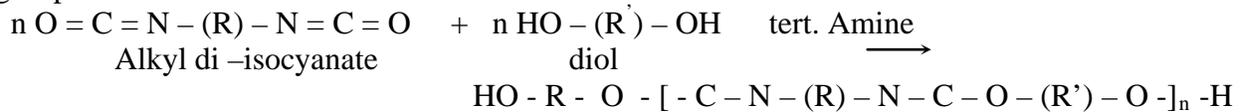
**Polyurethane polymers:** Polyurethanes are characterized by the presence of urethane linkage, [-NHCOO-] in their repeat units. They resemble polyamides in their structure, with the presence of one more 'O' making the chain more flexible. They are linear polymers with the structure represented by:



||| ||

O H      H O

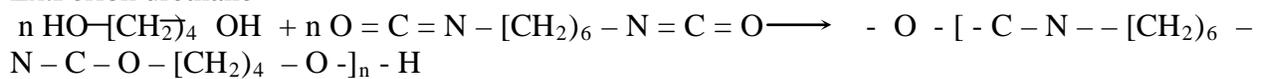
Polyurethanes are prepared by the addition polymerization reaction between alkyl di-isocyanate with diol. During addition the H atom of the OH group gets attached to N-atom to form NH-CO group as follows:



||| ||

O H      H O  
Poly urethane

Ex. Perlon urethane



||| ||

O H                      H O

**Properties:**

Polyurethanes are spongy, transparent linear thermoplastics  
They have low melting point and high degree of flexibility  
They are resistant to water, oil, and corrosive chemicals.

**Applications:**

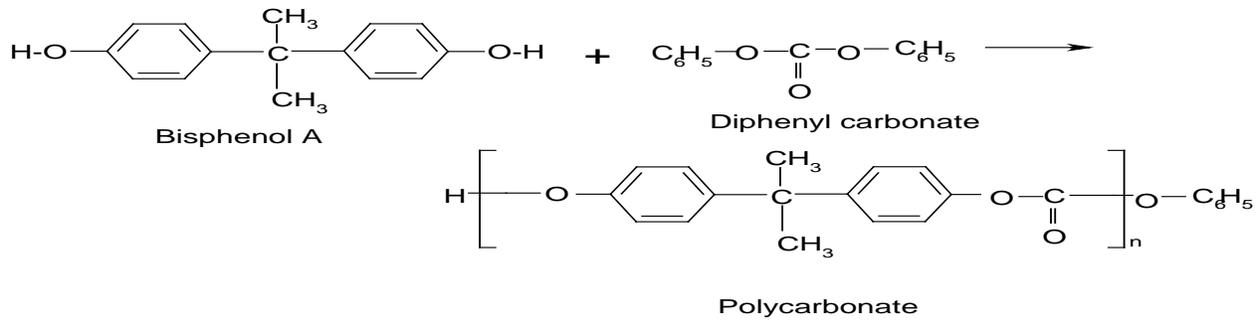
- Due to their resistance to oil, grease and corrosive chemicals, polyurethanes are used in tire treading and industrial wheels.
- Polyurethane fibers are used in light-weight water repellent garment like swim suits.
- Polyurethanes are abrasion resistant and hence they are used as floor coating of gymnasium, dance floors, etc
- Polyurethane foams (U foams) are used in cushions for furniture and car upholsteries.
- The abrasion resistance and superior adhesion properties of polyurethane adhesives have enabled the advancement of recording densities in the form of magnetic binders for various forms of recording media from audio/video tapes, computer disc, and even prepaid cards and transportation tickets.
- Due to polyurethane's electrical insulation characteristics, they are also used extensively in wire coatings and optical fiber cable.

**Polycarbonates:**

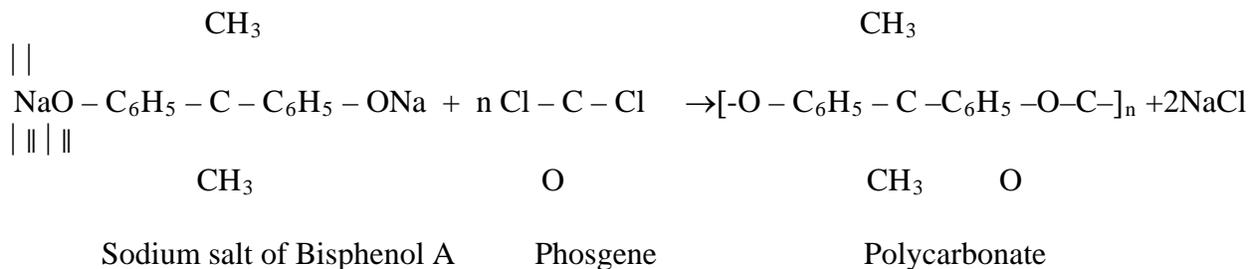
Polycarbonates are condensation polymers - polyesters of phenols and carbonic acid, HO-CO-OH. They contain [ - O - CO - O - ] linkage.

**Preparation:**

They are prepared by condensing Bisphenol A with diphenyl carbonate involving elimination of phenol in presence of tert. amine catalyst



They are also prepared by condensation reaction of phosgene and sodium salt of Bisphenol A.



#### Properties:

- Polycarbonate is a transparent thermoplastic.
- Polycarbonate has a high melting point, around 265°C
- It has a high tensile strength and impact resistance
- It is resistant to water and many organic compounds but alkalis slowly hydrolyze it.

#### Applications:

The great commercial success of polycarbonate is due to its unique combination of properties extreme toughness, outstanding transparency, excellent compatibility with several polymers, and high heat distortion resistance.

It finds application in making many useful articles such as safety goggles, safety shields, Telephone parts and automobile light lenses etc

Polycarbonates are clear thermoplastic polymers which are mainly used as molding compounds. CD-ROMs and baby bottles are well known examples of their use.

Used as insulator in electronic and electrical industries

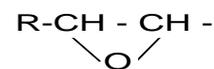
#### Adhesives:

It is defined as the non metallic polymeric binding materials, which firmly hold two similar or different materials such as metals glasses etc. by surface attraction.

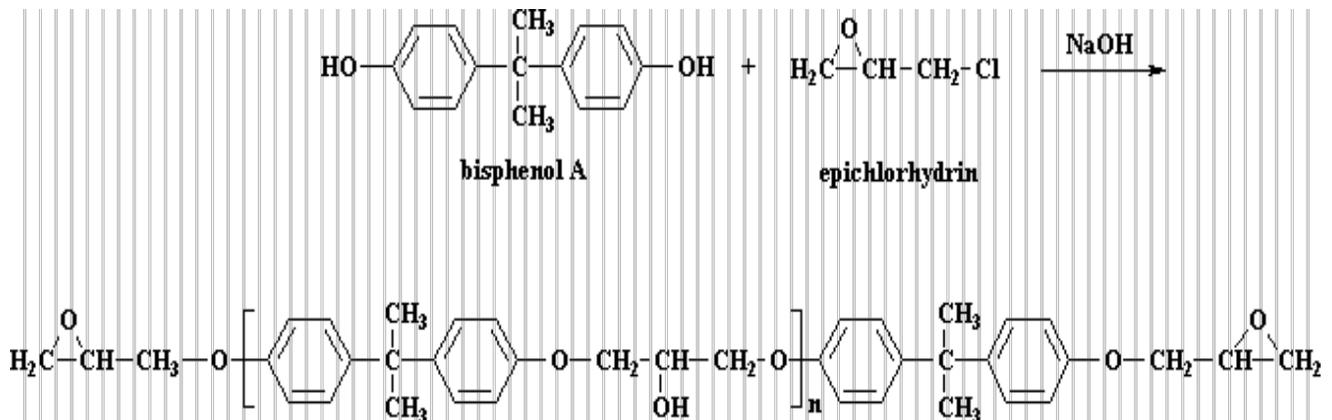
- Some natural adhesives are gum and glue while synthetic adhesives are phenol formaldehyde resin, urea formaldehyde resin, epoxies etc
- Synthetic adhesives are far superior to natural adhesives in their adhesive capacity.
- Each type of adhesive is useful for bonding only a select group of materials, eg. Epoxy resins are good adhesives for metals, wood, glass, concrete, ceramics and leather while phenol-formaldehyde is used for rubber.

#### Epoxy Resins [Araldite]

Epoxy resins are basically poly ethers and containing epoxy group:



Epoxy resins are combination 2, 2-bis (4-hydroxyphenyl) propane (I) (Bisphenol) and epichlorohydrin in presence of alkaline catalyst at 60° C. It is made by condensation polymerization.



The reactive epoxide and hydroxyl groups give a three dimensional cross linked structure. Melting point between 145-155°C.

#### Properties:

- Due to presence of stable ether linkage they are highly resistant to water, various solvents, alkalis, acids.
- They are further cured with polyamines, polyamides etc. there by increasing toughness and heat resistance.
- Epoxy resins are **thermosetting** materials as opposed to **thermoplastic** materials.
- The epoxy resins have excellent adhesion quality for various surfaces
- They have very good electrical insulating property.
- They are flexible due to the presence of reactive groups(OH and Epoxide) which are widely spaced

#### Applications:

Epoxy resins find a large number of uses due to their remarkable chemical resistance and good adhesion.

- Epoxy resins are excellent structural adhesives for many surfaces like glass, metals, wood etc
- They are used as surface coatings for skid-resistant surfaces for highways
- Mould made from epoxy resins are employed for production of components of aircrafts and automobiles
- Epoxy resins are applied over cotton, rayon and bleached fabrics to impart crease-resistance and shrinkage control
- They are one of the principal constituents of fiber -reinforced plastics
- They are used as laminating materials for electrical equipments.

#### Elastomers:

They are high polymers which undergo very large elongation (500 to 1000%) under stress and

regain original size on release of stress.

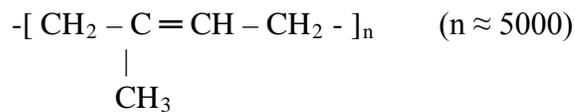
### Natural Rubber (NR)

- Natural rubber is obtained in the form of latex from rubber trees.
- Natural rubber is a highly soft and elastic material. It is a poly isoprene, obtained from the

Monomer, isoprene (2-methyl 1, 3 butadiene),  $\text{CH}_2 = \text{C} - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2$



and its structure is

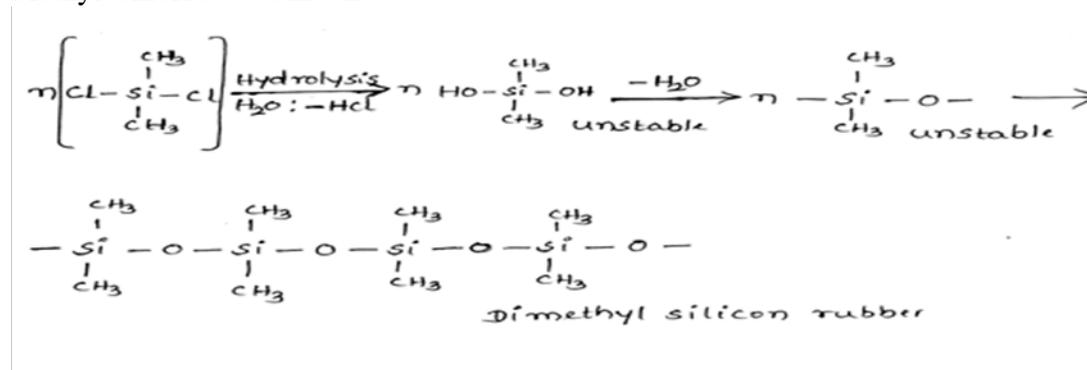


### Silicone rubber:

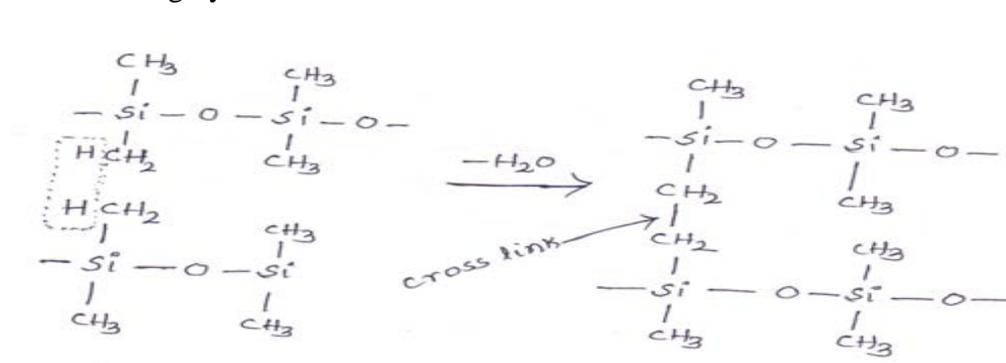
They contain Silicon-Oxygen structure, which has organic radicals attached to silicon atom. Silicon on reaction with alkyl halide in presence of Grignard reagent produces mono methyl and dimethyl silicon chlorides. Further they form very long chain polymers as below



Methyl Chloride      Silicon



Cross linked silicone rubbers are obtained by mixing linear dimethyl silicone polymers with fillers and curing agents like peroxides. Peroxide causes the formation of cross link through methyl groups of adjacent chains. Bi and tri functional silicon halides also results in the formation highly cross linked silicones.



**Properties:** Resistance to sunlight, dilute acids and alkalis. Flexible in the temperature range of 90-250°C. Cross linked silicones are thermosetting, good electrical insulating properties and heat resistance.

**Uses:** Used as sealing material in aircraft engines, manufacture of tires for fighter aircrafts. Used in making lubricants, paints, protective coatings for fabric finishing and water proofing. Used as insulators.

### Number average molecular weight ( $\bar{M}_n$ )

It is measured by colligative properties- Relative lowering of vapor pressure, Elevation of boiling point, Depression of freezing point and Osmotic pressure.

It is defined as the ratio of total mass of all molecules in a polymer sample to the total number of polymer molecules in the mixture.

$\bar{M}_n = w/\Sigma n$  Where  $w = nM$   $n$ -number of molecules,  $M$ -molecular mass of repeating unit

$$\bar{M}_n = \frac{n_1M_1 + n_2M_2 + n_3M_3 + \dots + n_iM_i}{n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \dots + n_i} = \frac{\Sigma n_iM_i}{\Sigma n_i}$$

### Weight average molecular weight ( $\bar{M}_w$ )

It is obtained by light scattering and ultracentrifugation techniques. It is also expressed in the similar form. In a mixture, if  $w$  is mass and  $M$  is the molecular mass of each species then  $\bar{M}_w$  is given by

$$\bar{M}_w = \frac{w_1M_1 + w_2M_2 + w_3M_3 + \dots + w_iM_i}{w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + \dots + w_i} = \frac{\Sigma w_iM_i}{\Sigma w_i} \quad \text{since } n = w/M \text{ or } w = nM$$

$$\bar{M}_n = \frac{n_1M_1^2 + n_2M_2^2 + n_3M_3^2 + \dots + n_iM_i^2}{n_1M_1 + n_2M_2 + n_3M_3 + \dots + n_iM_i} = \frac{\Sigma n_iM_i^2}{\Sigma n_iM_i}$$

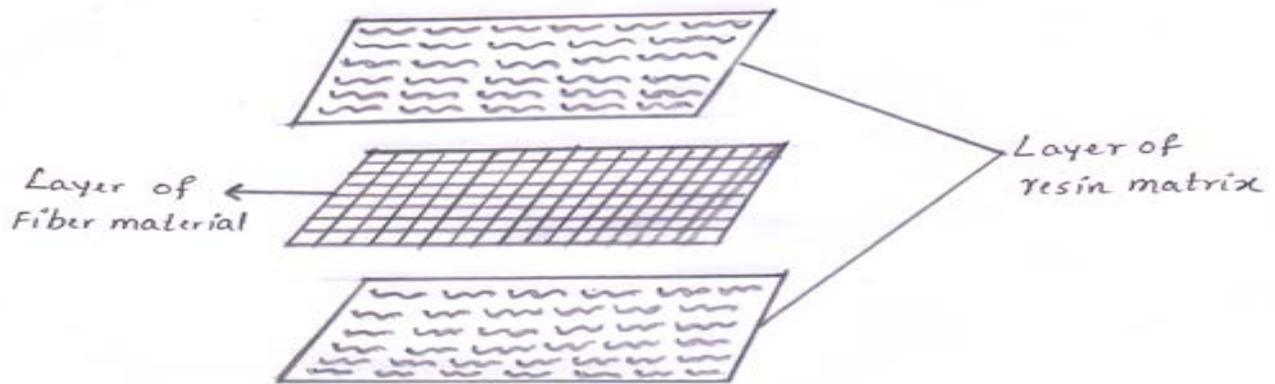
$\bar{M}_w$  of a polymer is either equal or greater than its  $\bar{M}_n$ , hence  $\bar{M}_w/\bar{M}_n \geq 1$  This ratio is called distribution ratio, which is a measure of polydispersity of polymers.

### POLYMER COMPOSITES:

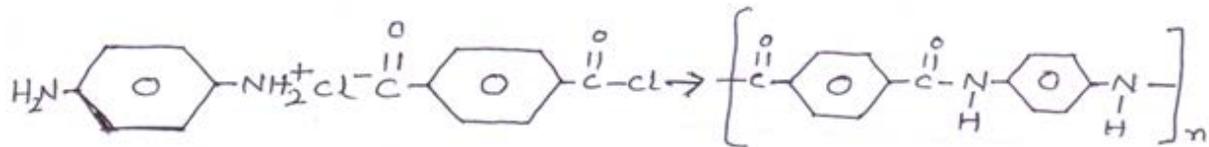
Combination of two or more structurally different components combine to form a new class of material suitable for structural applications is referred as composite material. When one of the component is a polymer, the resulting composite is called a polymer composite.

Fiber reinforced composites are strong and light weight. They are stronger than steel with less weight and hence they can be used in automobiles to achieve fuel efficiency and less pollution. They find higher strength per unit weight, low cost of fabrication and resistant to corrosion.

Polymeric composites are produced by suitably bonding a fiber material with polymer resin matrix and curing the same under pressure and heat. Alternate layers of resin and fiber are laid in a similar sequence to get the desired thickness. The polymer matrixes generally used are epoxy resin, Phenolic resins, silicone resins, melamine resins etc. The fibers used are glass fiber, carbon fiber and Kevlar.



**Kevlar(Aramid):** It is synthesized from the monomers 1,4-phenylene diamine(para phenylene diamine) and terephthaloyl chloride through a condensation reaction with the liberation of HCl as byproduct.

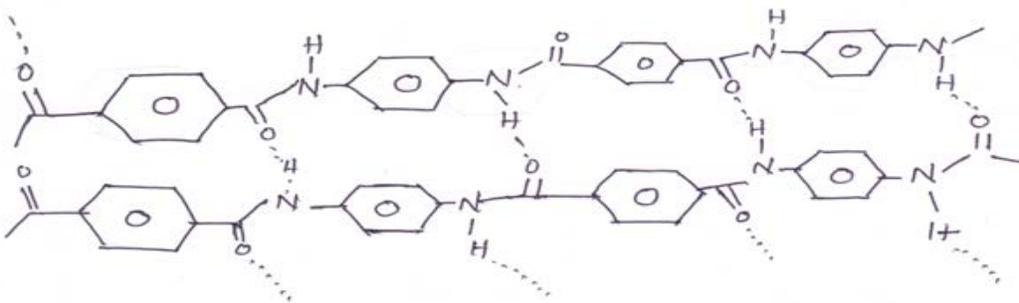


1,4-phenylene diamine

terephthaloyl chloride

Kevlar or Poly(para-phenylene terephthalamide)

It is high strength due to presence of inter chain hydrogen bonds formed between carbonyl group and NH group. Additional strength is achieved from aromatic stacking interactions between adjacent strands. Kevlar is a synthetic fiber stronger than steel.



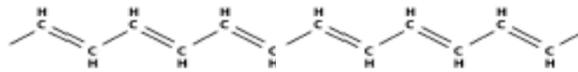
Molecular structure of Kevlar, dashed line indicates hydrogen bonding

**Properties:** High tensile strength, high chemical inertness, very low coefficient of thermal expansion, flame resistance, high impact resistance, low weight.

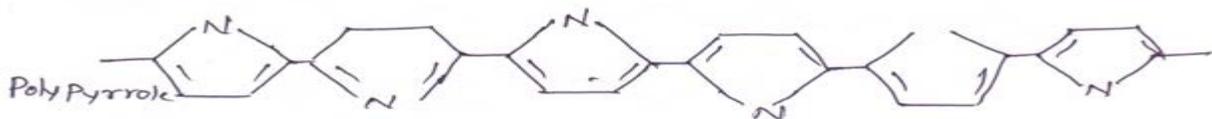
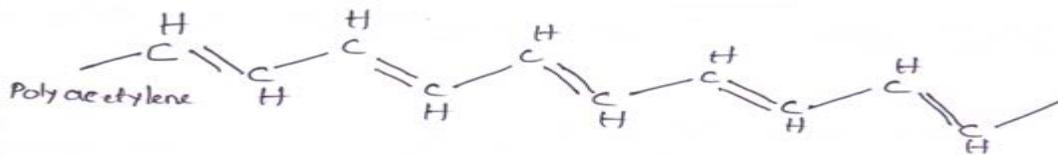
**Uses:** used as inner lining for tires to prevent punctures, used in table tennis, tennis, badminton and squash racquets, cricket bats, hockey sticks, used in personal armor such as helmets, ballistic face masks, bullet proof vests etc. It is often used in the field of cryogenics for its low thermal conductivity and high strength. Used in boat hulls, helicopter blades etc.

**Conducting polymers:** An organic polymer with delocalised  $\pi$ -electron system, having electrical conductance of the same order of a conductor is called conducting polymer.

- This is one of the simplest chain polymers it possesses conjugated double bond.

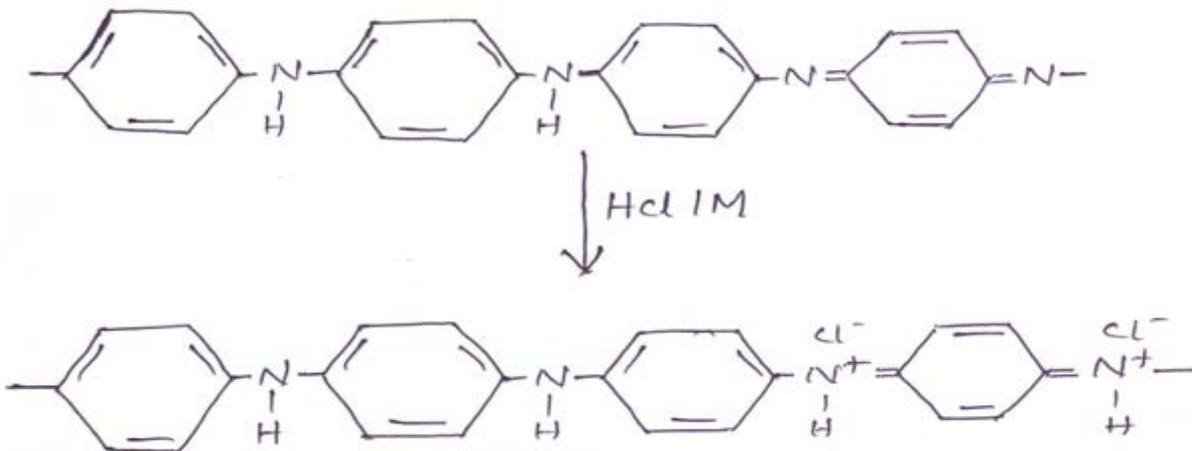


- Conducting polymers are obtained generally by doping (Doping is either the addition of electrons (reduction reaction) or the removal of electrons (oxidation reaction) from an organic polymer with conjugated backbone (consisting of alternating double and single carbon-carbon bonds)
- In a conjugated system, as the electrons are only loosely bound, electron flow may be possible. However as the polymers are covalently bonded the electrons are localized and do not take part in conductivity. Hence the material needs to be doped for electron flow to occur. Once doping has occurred, the electrons in the  $\pi$ -bonds are able to "jump" around the polymer chain. As the electrons are moving along the molecule, electric current occurs.



$y=1$  Leuco emeraldine  
 $y=0.5$  Emeraldine base  
 $y=0$  Pernigraniline

Emeraldine base consisting of equal proportions of amine(-NH-) and imine(=N-) sites. On protonic acid doping, imine sites are protonated by acids to form bipolaron bands.



**Applications:** Used as electrode material for commercial rechargeable batteries, used as conductive tracks on printed circuit boards, used in light emitting diodes, in fuel cells as the electro catalytic materials, used as sensors and biosensors in glucose sensing for medical applications and amine sensing for environmental and food safety applications.

**MODULE-5****WATER TECHNOLOGY**

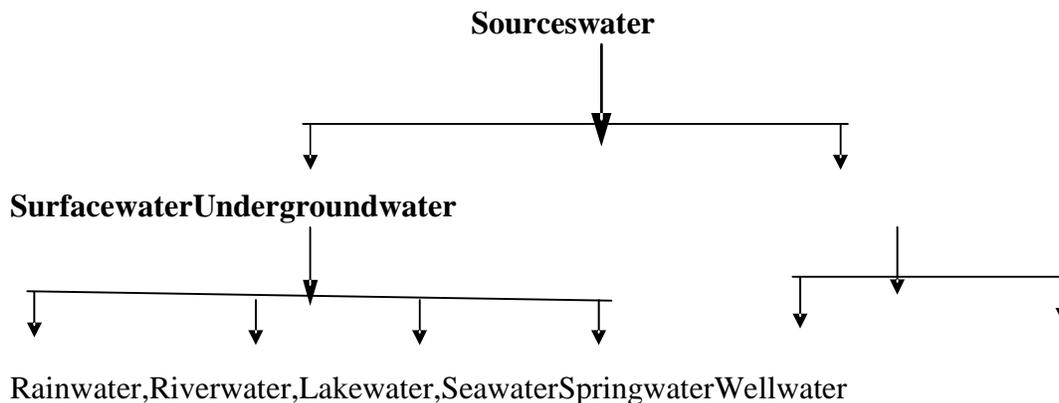
**Water Technology: Introduction, sources and impurities of water; boiler feed water, boiler troubles with disadvantages -scale and sludge formation, priming and foaming, boiler corrosion(due to dissolved O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub>).Determination of DO, BOD and COD, numerical problems. Sewage treatment: Primary, secondary (activated sludge method) and tertiary methods.Softening of water by ion exchange process.Desalination of sea water by reverse osmosis & electro dialysis (ion selective).5 Hours**

**Contents:**

- **Introduction:Sourcesofwater&impuritiesinwater.**
- **Boiler feed water, boiler troubles with disadvantages -scale and sludge formation.**
- **Priming and foaming, boiler corrosion(due to dissolved O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub>).**
- **Determination of DO, BOD and COD, numerical problems.**
- **Sewage treatment: Primary, secondary (activated sludge method) and tertiary methods.**
- **Softening of water by ion exchange process.**
- **Desalination of sea water by reverse osmosis & electro dialysis (ion selective).**

## WATER TECHNOLOGY

**Sources of Water:** These sources of water classified as follows



1) **Rainwater:** Purest form of water contains many dissolved gases and suspended solid particles.

2) **Riverwater:** Contains dissolved minerals of soils such as chlorides, sulphates, bicarbonates of sodium, calcium, Mg, Fe etc. It also contains the organic matter, small particles of soil and sand in suspension.

3) **Lakewater:** It contains less dissolved minerals but high quality of organic matters.

4) **Seawater:** It is the most impure form of natural water.

It contains dissolved salts such as NaCl, sulphates of sodium, bicarbonates of K, Mg & Ca, and bromides of K & Mg.

**Underground water:** clear in appearance but contains many dissolved salts and organic matter.

**Impurities in water:** The water found in nature is never pure which contains large number of impurities in varying

amount. These impurities mainly depend upon its source and are classified into four different types.

1) Dissolved gases; these include dissolved oxygen,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $(\text{NO})_x$ , all of which derived from atmosphere.

2) Dissolved solids; these include salts like bicarbonates, Chlorides and Sulphates of Ca, Mg, & Na in addition to that small amount of nitrates, nitrites, silicates, ammonia and ferrous salt etc.

3) Suspended impurities: Suspended impurities are the dispersed solids which can be removed by filtration or settling

Suspended impurities are of two types.

i) Inorganic Impurities: clay, silica, oxides of Fe & Mg etc.

ii) Organic Impurities: wood, pieces, dead animal matter, leaf, fish, bacteria, algae, protozoa etc.

4) Organic Matter: organic compounds derived from the decay of vegetable and animal matter including b

acteria may be present in water. Water also gets contaminated with sewage and excretal matter. Consequently the pathogenic bacteria and microorganisms are the main causes for waterborne diseases.

**Chemical Analysis of Water:** determination of various constituents present in water in order to ascertain the quality of water as per WHO standards and thereby utility of water is increased and known as water analysis.

The different constituents generally determined are hardness of water, alkalinity, chlorides, nitrates, sulphates, fluorides, dissolved oxygen etc.

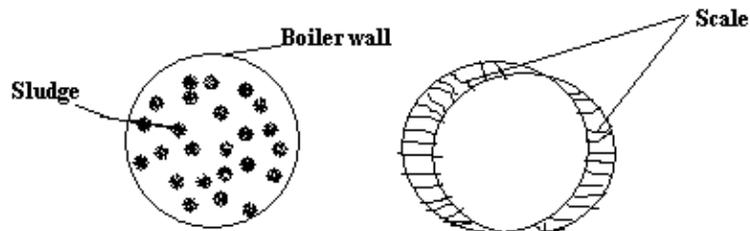
### Boiler feed water:

Water is mainly used in boilers for the generation of steam for industries and power house. Boiler feed water should correspond with the following composition.

- 1) Its hardness should be below 0.2 ppm
- 2) Its caustic alkalinity (due to  $\text{OH}^-$ ) should lie in between 0.15 and 0.45 ppm
- 3) Its soda alkalinity (due to  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) should be 0.456 to 1 ppm.

If excess of impurities present they lead to the formation of scales, sludges, foaming, Corrosion and caustic embattlement.

### Boiler troubles:



### Sludge and scale formation in Boilers:

In boilers, water is continuously evaporated to form steam. This increases the concentration of dissolved salts. Exceed their solubility product and precipitates thrown out.

### Sludge formation in boilers;

The resultant precipitate is called as scale. If it is in the form of thick adherent deposit. The precipitate is known as sludge and it is in the form of loose milky precipitate.

Sludges are formed by substances which have greater solubility in hot water than in cold water.

Ex:  $\text{MgCO}_3$ ,  $\text{MgCl}_2$ ,  $\text{CaCl}_2$ ,  $\text{MgSO}_4$  etc.

They are collected at place, Where the flow rate is slow, they can be easily removed with a wire brush.

### Disadvantages of Sludge:

Sludge has greater solubility in hot water than in cold water. They are poor conductors of heat and they tend to waste a portion of heat generated and hence decreases the efficiency of boiler.

Excessive sludge formation disturbs the working of the boiler. it settles in the region of poor water circulation such as pipe connection plug opening etc.

### Causes of scale formation in boilers

If the precipitate is hard and strongly adhering on the inner walls of the boilers is known as scale. Which is difficult to remove even with the help of hammer.

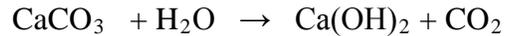
Scales are formed due to

- 1) Decomposition of Calcium bicarbonate.



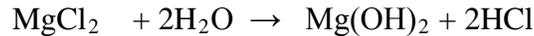
$\text{CaCO}_3$  is soft and it is the main cause of scale formation in low pressure boilers.

In high pressure boilers  $\text{CaCO}_3$  is soluble due to formation of  $\text{Ca(OH)}_2$ .



2) In high pressure boilers,  $\text{CaSO}_4$ ,  $\text{CaSiO}_3$  and  $\text{MgSiO}_3$  are sparingly soluble in cold water. They are nearly insoluble in high temperature.

3) Hydrolysis of magnesium salts.



4) Presence of Silica: If small quantity of Silica is present it will deposit as calcium silicate or  $\text{MgSiO}_3$ .

### Disadvantages of Scale formation

- 1) It is due to wastage of fuel.
- 2) It is due to lowering of boiler safety.
- 3) Due to Decrease in efficiency.
- 4) Due to danger of explosion.

### Priming:

When steam is produced rapidly in the boilers, some droplets of the liquid water carried along with steam. The process of passage of water particle along with steam from boilers is known as priming.

Priming is caused by the,

- 1) Presence of dissolved impurities and suspended impurities.
- 2) High steam velocities.
- 3) Sudden boiling.
- 4) Improper design of boilers.

Priming can be avoided by rapid change in steaming velocity, blowing off sludge or scaler, Low water levels in boilers and supplying soft water.

**Foaming:** The process of production of continuous foam or bubbles in boiler is known as foaming.

Foaming is caused by the presence of oil and alkalis in boiler feed water.

Foaming can be avoided by addition of anti foaming agents like castor oil, removal of foaming agent from boiler water by adding Chemicals like Sodium aluminate and Aluminium Sulphate.

**Boiler Corrosion:** Corrosive compounds, especially  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  must be removed, usually by use of a deaerator. Residual amounts can be removed chemically, by use of oxygen scavengers. Additionally, feed water is typically alkalized to a pH of 9.0 or higher, to reduce oxidation and to support the formation of a stable layer of magnetite on the water-side surface of the boiler, protecting the material underneath from further corrosion. This is usually done by dosing alkaline agents into the feed water, such as sodium hydroxide (caustic soda) or ammonia. Corrosion in boilers is due to the presence of dissolved oxygen, dissolved carbon dioxide, dissolved salts.

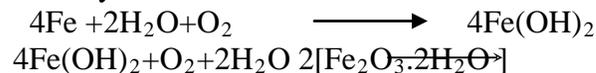
**Boiler corrosion:** It is decay or disintegration of boiler material either due to chemical or electrochemical reaction with its environment.

Disadvantages of boiler corrosion

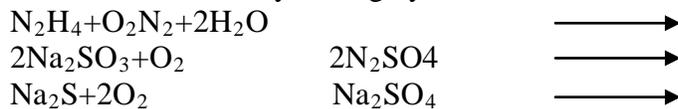
- 1 Shortening of boiler life.
- 2 Leakages of the joints and rivets
- 3 Increased cost of repairs and maintenance.

Corrosion in boiler due to,

**1 Presence of dissolved oxygen:** In boilers oxygen is introduced through the raw water supply. Water usually contains 8ppm of DO at room temperature. As water is heated the DO is set free and boiler starts corroding. DO reacts with iron in the presence of water under high temperature to form ferric hydroxide.



Removal of DO is by adding hydrazine or sodium sulphide.



A low concentration of 5-10ppm of  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$  is maintained because under high pressure it decomposes to give  $\text{SO}_2$  which enters steam pipes and appears as corrosive because of sulphurous acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3$ ).

## 2. Presence Of Dissolved Carbon dioxide

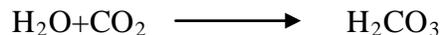
There are 2 sources of  $\text{CO}_2$  in boiler water

1. Dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  in raw water.

$\text{CO}_2$  formed by decomposition of bicarbonates in water.



$\text{CO}_2$  in presence of water forms carbonic acid which has a corrosive effect on boiler materials like any other acid



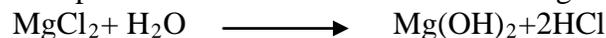
$\text{CO}_2$  can be removed by lime stone



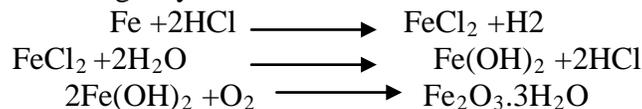
It also removed by adding ammonium hydroxide



2 Magnesium chloride: If it is present in boiler feed water can undergo hydrolysis producing HCl



The liberated acid reacts with iron material of the boiler to form ferrous hydroxide which is converted to rust in the following way.

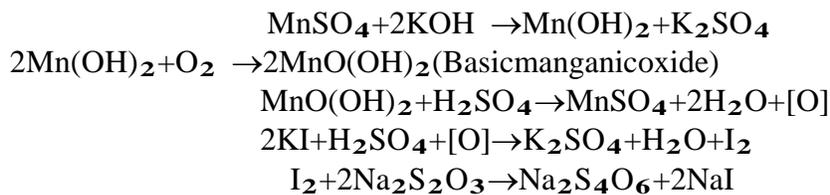


As the boiler water is generally alkaline hence acid is neutralised. In case the amount of acid is more calculated quantity of alkali is added outside to prevent the corrosion.

**DETERMINATION OF DISSOLVED OXYGEN PRESENT IN A  
GIVEN SAMPLE OF WATER BY WINKLER'S OR IODOMETRIC METHOD**

**Theory:**

The principle involved in the determination of dissolved oxygen is that the divalent manganese solution along with a strong alkali is added to water sample. The DO present in water sample oxidises divalent manganese to tetravalent manganese. The basic manganic oxide formed acts as oxygen carrier to enable dissolved oxygen in molecular form to take part in the reaction. Upon acidification, tetravalent manganese reverts to divalent state with the liberation of nascent oxygen, which oxidises KI to I<sub>2</sub>. The liberated iodine is titrated against standard sodium thiosulphate solution using starch as indicator.



**Procedure:** Pipette out 300 cm<sup>3</sup> of water sample into a clean glass stoppered bottle. Add 3 cm<sup>3</sup> of manganous sulphate solution followed by 3 cm<sup>3</sup> of alkaline potassium iodide solution. Stopper the bottle and shake well and allow the precipitate to settle down. Now add 1 cm<sup>3</sup> of concentrated sulphuric acid slowly and mix well until the precipitate dissolves completely. Pipette out 50 cm<sup>3</sup> of this solution into a clean conical flask and slowly titrate against 0.02 N sodium thiosulphate solution using 2 cm<sup>3</sup> starch indicator near the endpoint. Repeat the titration to get concordant readings.

**OBSERVATION AND CALCULATION**

**Part B: Determination of dissolved oxygen:**

Burette: Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> solution  
Conical flask: 50 cm<sup>3</sup> oxygen solution  
Indicator: Starch solution near the endpoint  
Endpoint: Disappearance of blue colour

Burette Reading	Trail 1	Trail 2	Trail 3
Final Reading			
Initial Reading			
Volume of Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> run down in cm <sup>3</sup>			

$$\text{Normality} \times \text{Volume of oxygen solution} = \text{Normality} \times \text{Volume of Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$$

$$\text{Normality of oxygen solution} = \frac{\text{Normality} \times \text{Volume of Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3}{\text{Volume of oxygen solution}}$$

Volume of oxygen solution

$$= 50 \frac{N \times V}{\text{Weight of dissolved oxygen/dm}^3} = \frac{N \times V}{\text{Normality} \times \text{Equivalent weight of oxygen}}$$

$$= \frac{a \times 8.0}{b} = \frac{a \times 8.0}{b} \times 1000 \text{ mg}$$

**RESULT:** The weight of dissolved oxygen in the given water sample = \_\_\_\_\_ mg.

### WATER POLLUTION

Discharge of certain foreign substance into water that affects the physical, biological and chemical properties of water which in turn decreases the utility of water is known as water pollution.

The matter which is responsible for these unhealthy changes in water is known as water pollutants.

Eg. Pd, Hg, CN, As, Cu, acids, alkalis, pesticides, insecticides, fungicides, animal matter, human excreta, radioactive wastes etc.

The contaminated water is called sewage water or effluent.

Depends on the sources of water pollutant, sewage water is classified into two types

1. Domestic Sewage
2. Industrial sewage

**Domestic sewage:** It is waste discharge away from residence, Institutes, Hospital etc. These include certain inorganic wastes, pathogenic bacteria, plant materials, Pesticides, detergents and other materials. Domestic sewage causes waterborne diseases like dysentery, cholera, typhoid, and hookworm infection.

**Industrial sewage:** The water released by industries contains Pd, Hg, CN, As, Cu, acids, alkalis, pesticides, detergents, insecticides, fungicides, soap, phenol etc.

The industrial sewage also causes several environmental problems.

This sewage can be rendered harmless by suitable treatments. The organic waste present in water undergoes degradation and breakdown into simple molecules by bacteria. The bacterial degradation is of two types;

1. Aerobic degradation or oxidation: Brought about by bacteria in presence of air and dissolved oxygen of water. Aerobic oxidation produces simpler compounds like water and CO<sub>2</sub>.
2. Anaerobic degradation or oxidation: Brought about by bacteria in absence of air and produces harmful products such as NH<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, CH<sub>4</sub> etc.

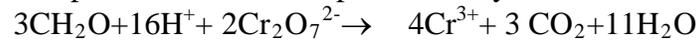
**Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD):** "BOD is defined as the amount of oxygen required by microorganism to oxidize all organic matter present in one litre of wastewater at 20°C over a period of 5 days".

**Determination:** To determine BOD a known volume of sample sewage is diluted with equal volume of fresh water contains nutrient for bacterial growth, whose dissolved oxygen can be determined.

The solution is kept in a closed bottle at 20°C over a period of 5 days. After 5 days the unused oxygen content in water is determined. The difference between oxygen contents in fresh water and unused oxygen contents in water is determined.

The difference between oxygen contents in fresh water and unused oxygen in solution gives the BOD value.

**Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD):** It is defined as the amount of oxygen consumed in the chemical oxidation of organic and inorganic impurities present in one litre of wastewater by using acidified  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  solution in presence of silver sulphate and mercuric sulphate as catalyst.



### Determination:

**Principal:** The method consists of adding excess standard solution of acidified  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  to known volume of effluent sample and back titrating the excess of  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  against standard solution of FAS.

**Procedure:** Pipette out 25 ml of wastewater sample into a clean conical flask and 10 ml of 0.25N  $K_2Cr_2O_7$ , 30 ml of 6N  $H_2SO_4$ , 1g  $Ag_2SO_4$  and 1g of  $HgSO_4$  reflux the mixture for two hours, cool and titrate against FAS using ferroin indicator till to get reddish brown colour. Let the titration value be  $a$   $cm^3$ . Perform blank titration in similar way except using wastewater sample. Let the blank titration value be  $b$   $cm^3$ .

### CALCULATION

Volume of  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  consumed for the sample =  $(b-a)$   $cm^3$   
 1000  $cm^3$  of 1N FAS solution = 1 equivalent of oxygen = 8g of oxygen (or  $8 \times 10^3$  mg of  $O_2$ )

$$(b-a) \text{ cm}^3 \text{ of } \dots \text{ N FAS solution} = \frac{8 \times 10^3 \times (b-a) \times N \text{ of FAS}}{1000 \times 125 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ of wastewater}} \times \text{mg of oxygen}$$

25  $cm^3$  of water sample consumed  $X$  mg of  $O_2$

$$1000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ of wastewater sample contains} = \frac{.X \times 1000}{25 \text{ mg of oxygen / dm}^3}$$

COD of wastewater sample = ..... mg of  $O_2$  per  $dm^3$

### Problems on COD

1) Calculate the COD of the effluent sample when 25  $cm^3$  of the effluent sample requires 8.5  $cm^3$  of 0.001 N  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  Solution for complete oxidation.

Ans)  $COD = N \times V_{\text{of } K_2Cr_2O_7} \times 8000 / V_{\text{of effluent}}$   
 $COD = .001 \times 8.5 \times 8000 / 25$   
 $COD = 2.72 / dm^3$

2) 25cm<sup>3</sup> of a sample of COD analysis was reacted with 15cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.2N K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> & the unreacted K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> requires 8.2cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.2N FAS. 25cm<sup>3</sup> of same K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> & 25cm<sup>3</sup> of distilled water under the same condition requires 16.4cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.1N FAS.

Ans)  $COD = N \times (V_2 - V_1) \text{ of } K_2Cr_2O_7 \times 8000 / V_{\text{of effluent}}$   
 $COD = 0.2 \times 6.8 \times 8000 / 25$   
 $COD = 435.2 / dm^3$

3) 20ml of sample of COD analysis was reacted with 10ml of 0.25 N K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> and the unreacted dichromate required 6.5ml of 0.10N FAS. 10ml of the same K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> and 20ml of distilled water under the same conditions as the sample required 26ml of 0.10 N FAS. What is the COD of the sample.

Ans) Volume of 0.1N FAS required to react with unconsumed K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> = 6.5ml  
 Volume of FAS consumed in blank = 26ml  
 Amount of K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> consumed to satisfy COD  
 in terms of FAS solution = 26 - 6.5ml  
 $COD \text{ of the sample} = (26 - 6.5) \times N \times 8000 / V_{\text{of effluent}}$   
 $= (26 - 6.5) \times 0.10 \times 8000 / 20$   
 $COD = 780 \text{ mg/l}$

4) Calculate the COD of the effluent sample when 25cm<sup>3</sup> of effluent sample requires 8.9cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.01M K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> for complete oxidation.

Ans)  $COD = N \times V_{\text{of } K_2Cr_2O_7} \times 48000 / V_{\text{of effluent}}$   
 $= 0.01 \times 8.9 \times 48000 / 25$   
 $= 17.00 \text{ g/dm}^3$

5) 25cm<sup>3</sup> of a sample of COD analysis was reacted with 15cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.2N K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> & the unreacted K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> requires 8.2cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.2N FAS. 25cm<sup>3</sup> of same K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> & 25cm<sup>3</sup> of distilled water under the same condition requires 16.4cm<sup>3</sup> of 0.1N FAS. What is COD of water.

Ans)  $COD = N \times (b - a) \times 8000 / 25$   
 $COD = 0.2 \times (16.4 - 8.2) \times 8000 / 25$   
 $COD = 524.8 \text{ g/dm}^3$

### Water treatment or sewage treatment

Removal of harmful contamination from wastewater completely or partially is known as water treatment or sewage treatment.

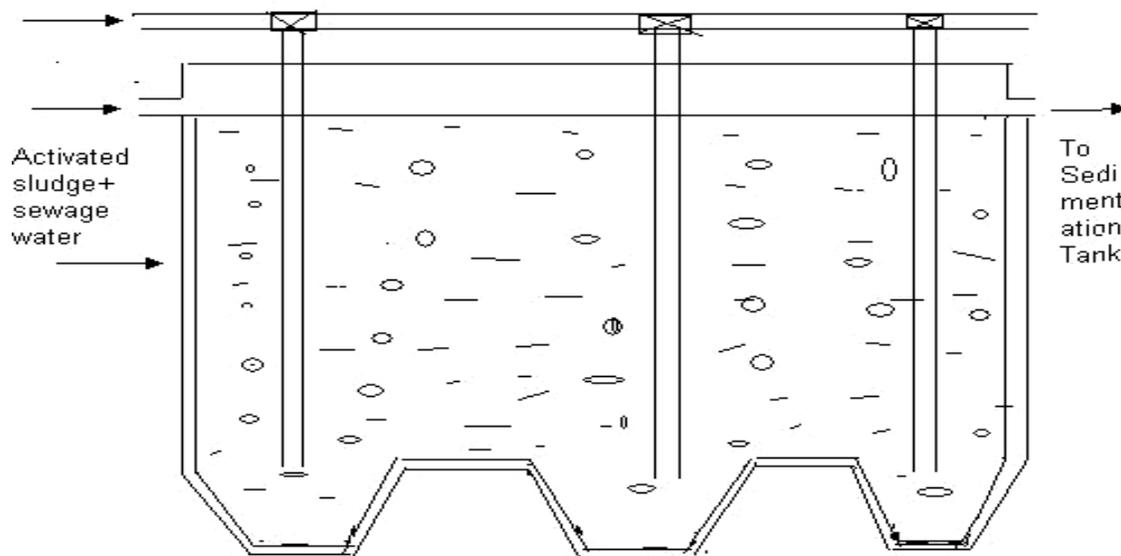
The treatment of sewage water is carried out by three different stages.

1. Primary treatment
2. Secondary treatment
3. Tertiary treatment

**Primary treatment:** The removal of coarse solid in the sewage water is affected by means of narrow rocks, screens, grit chambers, and skimmed tank etc. The water is then passed into sedimentation tank where it is allowed to settle. The nonsettled impurities are removed by adding coagulants such as potash alum

**Secondary treatment or activated sludge method:** The wastewater after primary treatment is allowed to flow into a large tank where biological treatment is carried out. Here the water is sprayed with activated sludge, the microorganism present in sludge form a thin layer on water and breakdown all organic impurities into simpler compounds.

The air is passed from the centre of tank vigorously in order to bring effective aerobic oxidation. The residual water is chlorinated to kill bacteria and then treated with potash alum to settle the impurities. The water is then filtered and discharged into drainage.



**Tertiary treatment:** The water even after secondary treatment contains phosphate, heavy metal ions, colloidal impurities, coloring matter etc. Hence the water is subjected to tertiary treatment. The tertiary treatment includes the treatment with lime to remove phosphates, treatment with  $S^{2-}$  to remove heavy metal ions as insoluble sulphides, treatment with activated charcoal to absorb coloring matter and then potash alum to remove colloidal impurities and then discharge to drainage.

### Softening of water by ion exchange process:

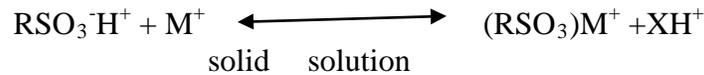
Softening of water is the process, where by we remove or reduce hardness of water irrespective of whether it is temporary or permanent is known as softening of water. Ion exchange process is an external treatment of softening of water. Which is done before its entry in the boilers.

It is a process by which ions held on a porous, essential insoluble solid are exchanged for ions in solution that is brought in contact.

### Ion Exchange softening process:

The Hard water is first passed through cation exchange ( styrene divinyl benzene on sulphonation or carboxylation –capable to exchange their hydrogen ions with the cations in the

water) column . when all the cations like  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  etc. are removed from resin & it equivalent to  $\text{H}^+$  ions are released from this column to water.



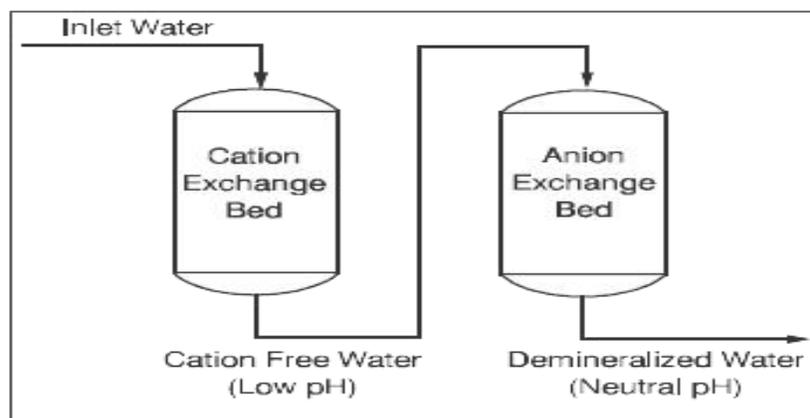
After passing through cation exchange column, the hard water is passed through anion exchange column ( Styrene Divinyl Benzene –copolymer) Which contains basic functional group such as amino or quaternary ammonium ( $\text{N}^+\text{R}_3$ ) or tertiary sulphonium group as integral part of resin.

When all the anions like  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  etc. present in the water are removed (taken up by resin) and equivalent amount of  $\text{OH}^-$  ions are released from this column to water.



$\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^-$  ions get combined to produce water.  $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \longrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$

Thus the Water coming out from the exchanger is free from cations as well as anions. Ion free water is known as deionized or demineralized water and it is also free from acidity or alkality and it as pure distilled water.



Finally the demineralised water is passed through a degasifier. A tower whose rider are heated and which is connected to vacuum pump. High temperature and low pressure reduce the amount of dissolved gases like  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  in water.

The exhausted cation exchange column and anion exchange column is regenerated by treating with  $\text{HCl}$  and  $\text{NaOH}$  respectively which are then used again.

#### Advantages:

- 1) It is used to soften highly acidic or alkaline water.
- 2) It produce water of very low hardness ( 0- 2ppm)
- 3) It is used in industries and domestic purposes.
- 4) Use of chemical is minimized and can be used any number of times.

#### Disadvantages:

- 1) If water contains turbidity then efficiency of process is reduced.
- 2) The cost is high or It is not economical.

**Portable water:** Water that is fit for human consumption and meets the microbiological and chemical standards.

standards of quality to prevent waterborne diseases and health risk from toxic chemicals is known as portable water.

**Desalination of water:** The process of partial or complete removal of NaCl salt from highly saline waters such as seawater is known as desalination.

Desalination can be carried out by different techniques which are,

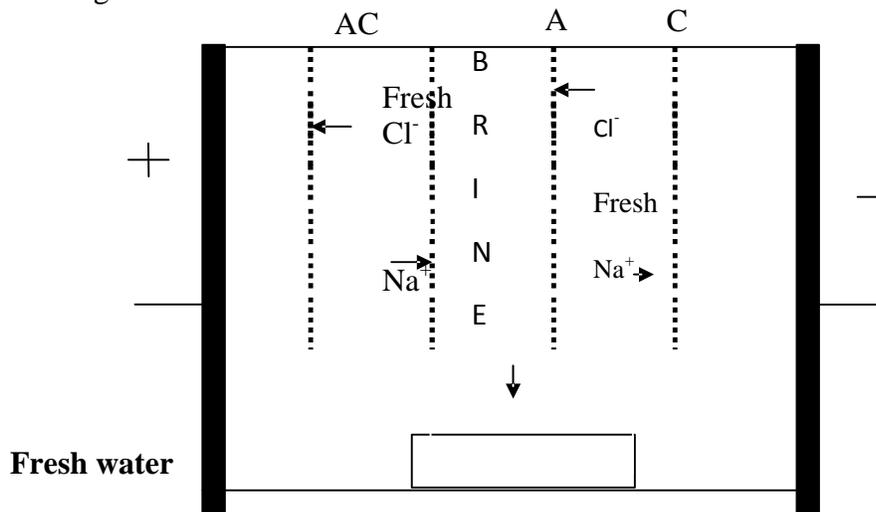
1. Flash evaporation
2. Electrodialysis
3. Reverse osmosis

**Electrodialysis:** An electrodialysis unit consists of a series of alternative cation and anion permeable membranes which permit only respective ions. The suitable emf is applied across the electrodes that depend on the level of salt in saline water.

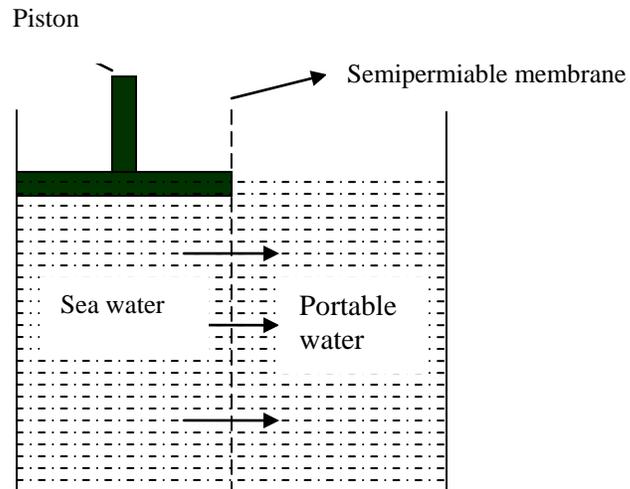
Under the influence of emf  $\text{Na}^+$  ions move towards the cathode through cation permeable membrane whereas  $\text{Cl}^-$  move towards anode through anion permeable membrane.

The net result is the depletion of salt in AC compartment and increase of salt concentration in CA compartment. The fresh water obtained from AC compartment.

The anode is placed near anion permeable membrane while cathode is placed near cation permeable membrane as shown in fig.



**Reverse Osmosis:** Osmosis is the process where the solvent molecules naturally diffuse from lower concentration region to higher concentration region through semi permeable membrane due to osmotic pressure ( $P_o$ ). This natural process may be reversed by applying pressure on brine side higher than that of osmotic pressure, when fresh water tends to flow from brine to fresh water region as shown in fig.



**NANOMATERIALS**

- **Nano Materials: Introduction, properties (size dependent). Synthesis-bottom up approach (solgel, precipitation, gas condensation, chemical vapour condensation processes). Nano scale materials- fullerenes, carbon nano tubes, nano wires, Nano rods, nano composites and dendrimers**

**5 Hours**

**Contents :**

- **Introduction, Properties (Size Dependent).**
- **Synthesis-Bottom Up Approach By Solgel, Precipitation, Gas Condensation**
- **Chemical Vapour Condensation**
- **Nano scale materials- Fullerenes, Carbon Nano Tubes, Nano Wires, Nano rods, nano composites and dendrimers**

## NANOMATERIALS

### 1. Introduction:

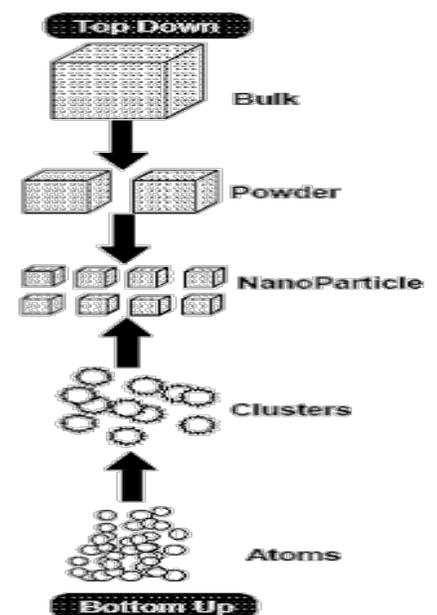
Nanomaterials are corner stones of nanoscience and nanotechnology. Nanostructure science and technology is a broad and interdisciplinary area of research and development activity that has been growing explosively worldwide in the past few years. It has the potential for revolutionizing the ways in which materials and products are created and the range and nature of functionalities that can be accessed. It is already having a significant commercial impact, which will assuredly increase in the future.

### What are nanomaterials?

Nanoscale materials are defined as a set of substances where at least one dimension is less than approximately 100 nanometers. A nanometer is one millionth of a millimeter - approximately 100,000 times smaller than the diameter of a human hair. Nanomaterials are of interest because at this scale unique optical, magnetic, electrical, and other properties emerge. These emergent properties have the potential for great impacts in electronics, medicine, and other fields.

In principle we can classify the wet chemical synthesis of nanomaterials into two broad groups:

1. The top down method: where single crystals are etched in an aqueous solution for producing nanomaterials, For example, the synthesis of porous silicon by electrochemical etching.
2. The bottom up method: consisting of sol-gel method, precipitation etc. where materials containing the desired precursors are mixed in a controlled fashion to form a colloidal solution.



### Nanomaterial – synthesis

Nanomaterial can be synthesized by two approaches

1. Top down process
2. Bottom up process

**The top down process:** where the material is prepared by the structural decomposition of coarser-grained structures as the result of severe plastic deformation.

**Ex:** Milling and mechanical grinding

**The bottom up process:** where materials containing the desired precursors are mixed in a controlled fashion to form a colloidal solution.

**Ex:** Sol-gel, Precipitation, Gas condensation, Chemical vapour condensation, Hydro thermal & Thermolysis processes.

Nanomaterials can be defined as an aggregate of atoms between 1nm to 100nm with dimensions less than the characteristic length of some physical phenomenon. Nanomaterials exhibit several size dependent properties few of them are given below.

**a)Surface area:** Nanomaterials have a significant proportion of atoms existing at the surface. Properties like catalytic activity, gas adsorption and chemical reactivity depend on the surface area. Therefore nanomaterials can show specific related properties that are not observed in bulk materials.

**b)Electrical properties:** The electronic bands in bulk materials are continuous due to overlapping of orbits of billions of atoms. But in the nanomaterials, very few atoms or molecules are present so the electric band becomes separate and the separation between different electric states varies with the size of the nanomaterials. Hence, some metals which are good conductors in bulk become semiconductors and insulator as their size is decreased to nano level.

**c)Optical properties:** Nanomaterials in general can have particular optical properties as a result of the way light intersects with their fine nanostructures. The discrete electronic states of nanomaterials allow absorption and emission of light at specific wavelength. Hence, nanomaterials exhibit unique colours different from bulk materials.

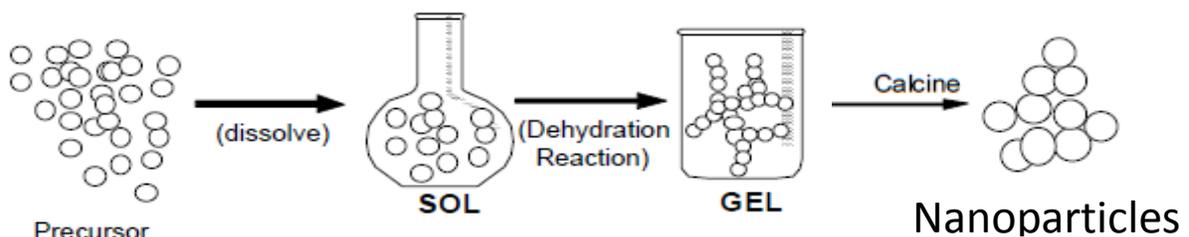
**d)Magnetic properties:** Magnetic properties of nanostructured materials are distinctly different from that of bulk materials. The large surface area to volume ratio results in a substantial proportion of atoms having different magnetic coupling with neighboring atoms leading to differing magnetic properties. Bulk gold and platinum are non magnetic but at the nano size they act as magnetic particles. Gold nanoparticles become ferromagnetic when they are capped with appropriate molecules such as thiol.

**e)Mechanical properties:** Mechanical properties of nanomaterials may reach the theoretical strength, which are one or two orders of magnitude higher than that of the bulk materials. For example, the bending of bulk copper(wire, ribbon,etc.) occurs readily with the movement of copper atoms/clusters at about 50nm scale. Copper nanoparticles smaller than 50nm are considered super hard materials that do not exhibit the same malleability and ductility as bulk copper.

**Nanoparticles** are particles between 1 and 100 nanometers in size. In nanotechnology a particle is defined as a small object that behaves as a whole unit with respect to its transport and properties. Particle are further classified according to diameter. Ultrafine particles are the same as nanoparticles and between 1 and 100 nanometers in size. Coarse particles cover a range between 2,500 and 10,000 nanometer. Fine particles are sized between 100 and 2,500 nanometers.Nanoparticle research is currently an area of intense scientific interest due to a wide variety of potential applications in biomedical, optical and electronic fields.

### Sol-Gel-Method.

The sol-gel process has been mainly used in the synthesis of monodispersed nanoparticles of metal oxide and temp sensitive organic- inorganic hybrid material.The following steps are involved in the synthesis of nanomaterials by sol-gel process.

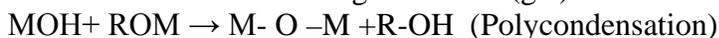


Examples: Zinc oxide nanoparticles, TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles can be synthesized by this method.

**a) preparation of sol:** In this method, metal alkoxide is used a precursor to synthesis nanoparticles of a metal oxide. Metal alkoxide is dissolved in alcohol and then water is added under acidic, neutral or basic conditions. Addition of water leads to hydrolysis in which alkoxide ligand is replaced with a hydroxyl ligand.



**b) Conversion of sol to gel :** The polycondensation reaction between MOH and MOR results in the formation of an oxide – or alcohol – bridged network(gel).



**c) Aging of the gel:** The reaction mixture is allowed to continue polycondensation reactions until the gel transforms into a solid mass, accompanied by contraction of the gel network and expulsion of solvent from gel pores.

**d) Removal of a solvent:** The water and other volatile liquids are removal from the gel network. If isolated by thermal evaporation, the resulting product is termed a xerogel. If the solvent is extracted under supercritical conditions, resulting product is termed an aerogel.

**e) Heat treatment:** The sample obtained is calcined at high temperature (800<sup>0</sup>C) to obtain nanoparticles. Nanoparticles formed by sol-gel process commonly have a size ranging from 1 to 100 nm.

### Advantages

1. Nanomaterials of high purity with good homogeneity can be obtained.
2. Samples can be prepared at lower temperature.
3. Easy to control synthesis parameters to control physical characteristics like shape and size of resulting materials.
4. Simple and inexpensive equipment.

### Precipitation Method.

In this method solid nanoparticles are obtained by careful precipitation from their solution. Precipitation method can be used to prepare nanoparticles of metal oxides, metal sulphides and metals.

a) In this method, an inorganic metal salt (such as nitrate, chloride or acetate of metal) is dissolved in water (precursor solution).

b) Metal cations exist in the form of metal hydrate species, for example, (Al(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub>)<sup>3+</sup> or (Fe(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub>)<sup>3+</sup>.

c) These metal hydrates are added to precipitating agent like NaOH or NH<sub>4</sub>OH, it changes the P<sup>H</sup>& causes condensation of precursor.

d) Thus concentration of solution increases and reaches a critical level called super saturation. At this concentration nucleus formation is initiated. The nucleus further grows into particles, which gets precipitate.

e) The precipitate obtained is filtrated, washed with water, air dried and finally calcined at high temperature.

### Advantages

1. The process is relatively economical.
2. Wide range of single and multicomponent of oxide nanopowders can be synthesized.

### **Inert Gas Condensation Method.**

The inert gas condensation is one of the simplest techniques for the production of metal nanoparticles.

- a) In this method, Metal is vaporized by heating at high temperature inside a chamber.
- b) Chamber is previously evacuated and filled with inert gas to a low pressure.
- c) Metal atoms present in the vapours collide with the inert gas molecules and condenses into nanoparticles.
- d) The particle size is usually in the range 1-100 nm and can be controlled by varying the inert gas pressure.

#### **Advantages:**

1. A major advantage is the improved control over the particle size.
2. It is better suited for larger scale synthesis of nanoparticles.

### **Chemical Vapour Condensation Method.**

In this method a mixture of gas reactants are delivered into a reaction chamber. Inside the chamber, the chemical reactions among the gas molecules are induced by an input of energy such as resistant heating, laser and plasma. The product formed in the vapour state on condensation, deposits nanoparticles. The by-products of the reactions are exhausted.

#### **Advantages**

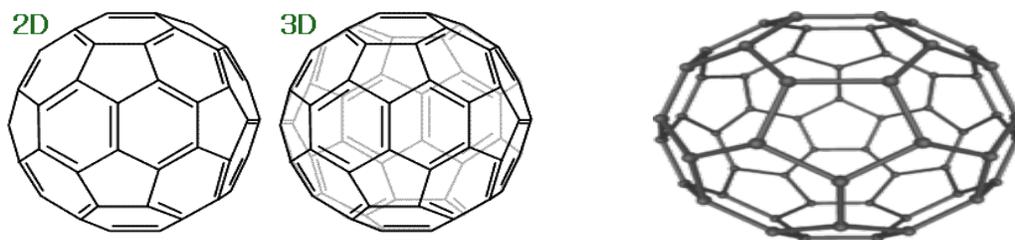
1. Very flexible, can produce wide range of materials.
2. Precursors can be solid, liquid or gas under ambient conditions, but delivered to reactor as vapour.
3. Allows formation of doped or multi- component nanoparticles by use of multiple precursors.

### **Nano scale materials:**

#### **Fullerenes:**

Fullerenes are class of molecules made only carbon atoms having closed cage like structure. Fullerenes can be of a different type  $C_{60}$ ,  $C_{70}$ ,  $C_{76}$ ,  $C_{78}$ ,  $C_{80}$  etc. depending on the number of carbon atoms. the most important fullerene is  $C_{60}$  containing 60 carbon atoms which is commonly known as Buckminster fullerene. the name of Buckminster fullerene comes from the name of an architect Richard Buckminster fuller who had built the geodesic dome with spherical shape.

A **fullerene** is a molecule of carbon in the form of a hollow sphere, ellipsoid, tube, and many other shapes. Spherical fullerenes are also called **buckyballs**, and they resemble the balls used in football (soccer). Cylindrical ones are called carbon nanotubes or buckytubes. Fullerenes are similar in structure to graphite, which is composed of stacked graphene sheets of linked hexagonal rings; but they may also contain pentagonal (or sometimes heptagonal) rings.



Molecule with 60 carbon atoms,  $C_{60}$ , and with an icosahedral symmetry, Larger molecular weight  $C_{70}$ ,  $C_{76}$ ,  $C_{78}$ ,  $C_{80}$ , and higher mass fullerenes, which possess different geometric structure, e.g.  $C_{70}$  has a rugby ball-shaped symmetry.

The 60 carbon atoms in  $C_{60}$  are located at the vertices of a regular truncated icosahedron and every carbon site on  $C_{60}$  is equivalent to every other site.

The average nearest neighbor C-C distant in  $C_{60}$  1.44Å is almost identical to that in graphite (1.42 Å). Each carbon atom in  $C_{60}$  is trigonally bonded to other carbon atoms, as in graphite. Most of the faces on the regular truncated icosahedron are hexagons. There are 20 hexagonal faces and 12 additional pentagonal faces in each  $C_{60}$ . which has a molecule diameter of 7.10Å.

Fullerenes can be made by vaporizing carbon within a gas medium. (they could form spontaneously in a condensing carbon vapor) Cross-sectional drawing of the supersonic laser-vaporization nozzle used in the discovery of fullerenes.

### Properties of fullerenes

- 1) Fullerenes are heat-resistant and unique, dissolve in common solvent at room temperature.
  - 2) In fullerenes, 12 pentagonal rings are necessary and sufficient to affect the cage closure.
  - 3) Fullerenes contain carbon atoms arranged as a combination of 12 pentagonal rings and  $n$  hexagonal rings. The chemical formula is  $C_{20+2n}$ .
  - 4) Fullerene cages are about 7-15 Å in diameter, and are one carbon atom thick.
- Quite stable from chemical and physical points of view (breaking the balls requires temperatures of about 1000 °C).
- 5) Highest tensile strength of any known 2D structure or element.
  - 6) Highest packing density of all known structures.
  - 7) Impenetrable to all elements under normal circumstances, even to a helium atom with energy of 5 eV.

### Applications

1. Fullerenes are extremely flexible and strong nature, therefore are being considered for use in combat armor.
2. Researchers have found that water-soluble derivatives of fullerenes inhibit the HIV-1 protease (enzyme responsible for the development of the virus) and are therefore useful in fighting the HIV virus that leads to AIDS.
3. Elements can be bonded with  $C_{60}$  or other fullerenes to create more diverse materials, including superconductors and insulators.
4. Fullerenes and their derivatives are also applied to coat materials on some chemical sensors, such as quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) and surface acoustic wave sensors (SAW)

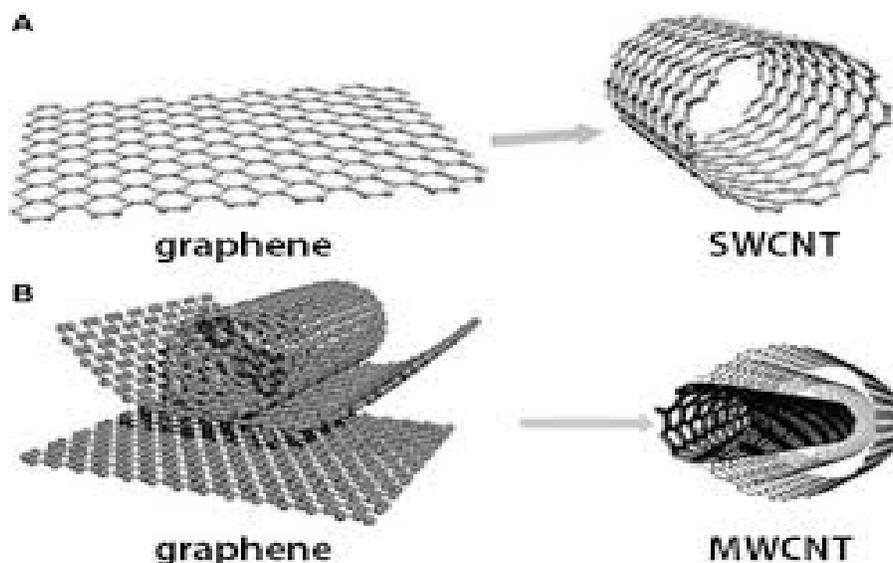
**Carbon Nanotubes (CNTs):** Carbon Nanotubes are cylindrical tubes with a central hollow core formed by rolling up of graphine sheets. Its ends are capped by hemisphere of fullerene sheets. The diameter of CNT is in the range of 1-50nm and the length can go up to few micrometers. The CNT is a one dimensional material like nanowire, but with the length to width ratio greater than 1000.

Current use and application of nanotubes has mostly been limited to the use of bulk nanotubes, which is a mass of rather unorganized fragments of nanotubes. Bulk nanotube materials may never achieve a tensile strength similar to that of individual tubes, but such composites may, nevertheless, yield strengths sufficient for many applications. Bulk carbon nanotubes have already been used as composite fibers in polymer to improve the mechanical, thermal and electrical properties of the bulk product.

Nanotubes are categorized as Single-Walled CNT(SWCNTS) and multi-walled nanotubes (MWCNTs).

1 Single-Walled CNT(SWCNTs): They are formed by rolling up of single graphine layer. The diameter of SWCNT is 1-4nm and length can go up to few micrometers.

2 Multi-Walled CNT(MWCNTs): They consist of two or more concentric graphine cylindres with vander wall's forces between adjacent tubes. The diameter of MWCNTs is in the range of 30-50nm and length can go up to few micrometers.



#### Properties and applications:

1. CNTs exhibit high electrical and thermal conductivity. They have low density and very high mechanical strength. Due to these properties they are used as electrode material for lithium ion rechargeable batteries.
2. CNTs can emit electrons when subjected to high electrical field. Due to this property they are used in the field emission X-ray tubes.
3. The CNTs are about 20 times stronger than steel and hence find applications in making automobiles and aircraft body parts.
4. SWCNTs absorb radiation in the near IR range (700-1100nm) and convert it to heat. This property is used in cancer thermotherapy to selectively kill cancer cells without affecting nearby healthy tissues.

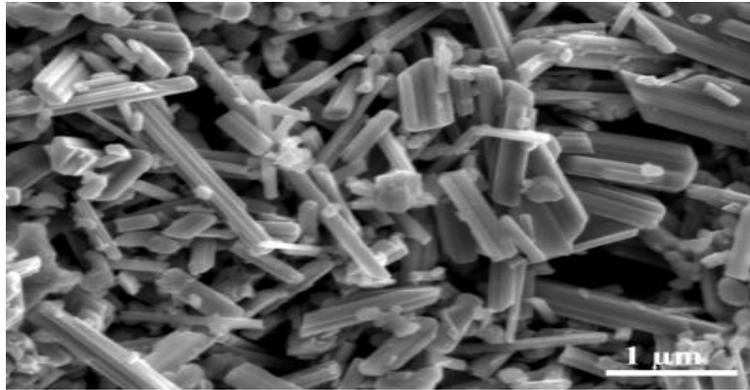
**Nano wires:** A nano wires is a nanostructure with the diameter of the order of nanometer with the ratio of the length to width being greater than 1000. They are also referred to as quantum wires. nanowires can be metallic (Ni, Pt, Au etc.), semiconducting (Si, GaN etc.) or insulating (SiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub> etc.). They belong to one dimensional (1-D) nanomaterials. Nanowires are prepared by using a number of techniques, including suspension, electrochemical deposition, vapour deposition etc. But the most commonly used technique is vapor-liquid-solid (VLS) synthesis. The nanowires of a given material exhibit thermal, electrical, mechanical and optical properties different from the bulk material. For example the conductivity of a nanowire will be much less than that of the corresponding bulk material.



**Uses:**

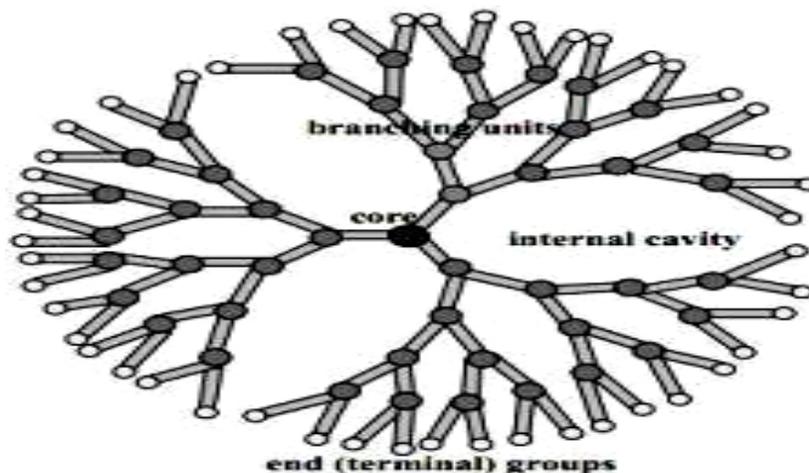
1. Data storage/transfer-transfer data up to 1000 times faster and store data for as long as 1000000 years without degradation
2. Batteries/generators-tiny, efficient solar panels, turning light into energy, able to hold 10 times the charge of existing batteries.
3. It is also used in transistors, LED's, Optoelectronic devices, biochemical sensors and thermoelectric devices.

**Nanorods :** Nanorods are solid nanostructures morphologically similar to nanowires but with aspect ratios (length divided by width) of approximately 3-5. They are formed from a variety of materials including metals, semiconducting oxides, diamonds and organic materials. Nanorods are produced by a number of techniques including a vapor-liquid-solid approach, mechanical alloying, Direct chemical synthesis, plasma arc discharge, laser ablation and catalytic decomposition. Direct chemical synthesis method is one of the simple and most commonly used method for the synthesis of nanorods, with a combination of ligands acting as shape control agents. The ligands bond to different facets of the nanorods with a combination of ligands acting as shape control agents.

**Uses:**

1. In display technologies, because the reflectivity of the rods can be changed by changing their orientation with an applied electric field.
2. In microelectromechanical systems (MEMS)
3. Nanorods along with other noble metal nanoparticles, also function as the diagnostic agents.
4. Nanorods absorb radiation in the near IR and convert it to heat. This property is used in cancer thermotherapy to selectively kill cancer cells without affecting nearby healthy tissues.
5. Nanorods based on semiconducting materials as energy harvesting and light emitting devices.

**Dendrimers:** Dendrimers are large and complex molecules with very well defined chemical structures. The dendrimers are tree-like repeatedly branched polymer molecules. (In Greek Dendros Means Tree And Meros Means Part) they have a central core of multifunctional molecule to which branched molecules are added repeatedly step by step. Branched multiple in each step in all the directions much in the way as the tree limbs divide to form smaller branches. Centre of a dendrimer is less dense and as the branches grow in multiple fashions, it becomes progressively denser towards the exterior. Each step of addition of branches to a dendrimer is called as a generation. A dendrimer can be grown up to 10-15 generations. Low generation dendrimers have a disc-like structure, while higher generations have a globular or spherical shape.

**Uses:**

1. It is used in medicinal diagnosis, gene therapy, chemical sensors etc.
2. It is used in adhesives and coatings.
3. It is used in light harvesting material.
4. It is used in catalyst and electronic applications.
5. It is also used in separating agents.

**Nano composites:** Nanocomposites are a class of materials in which one or more phases with nanoscale dimensions (0-D, 1-D and 2-D) are embedded in a metal, ceramic or polymer matrix. According to their matrix materials.

Nanocomposites can be classified into three types,

1 Ceramic Matrix Nanocomposites (CMNCs)

2 Metal Matrix Nanocomposites (MMNCs) and

3 Polymer Matrix Nanocomposites (PMNCs)

The reinforcing material can be made up of nanoparticles, nanosheets or nanofibres. The mechanical, electrical, thermal, optical, electrochemical, catalytic properties of the nanocomposites differ markedly from that of the component materials. For example adding carbon nanotubes improves the electrical and thermal conductivity of the composite. Other kinds of nanoparticulates may result in enhanced optical properties, dielectric properties, heat resistance or mechanical properties such as stiffness, strength and resistance to wear and damage.

**Uses:**

1. In producing batteries with greater power output.
2. In speeding up the healing process for broken bones.
3. In producing structural components with a high strength to weight ratio.
4. In making lightweight sensors with nanocomposites.
5. As lightweight materials in vehicles for fuel economy.
6. It is economically beneficial for artificial joints.